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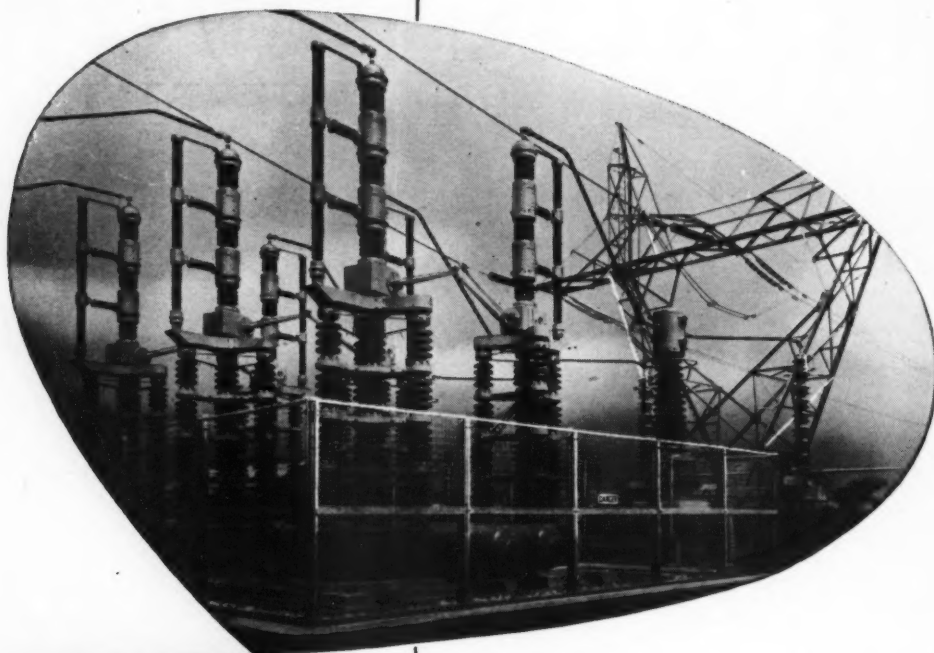
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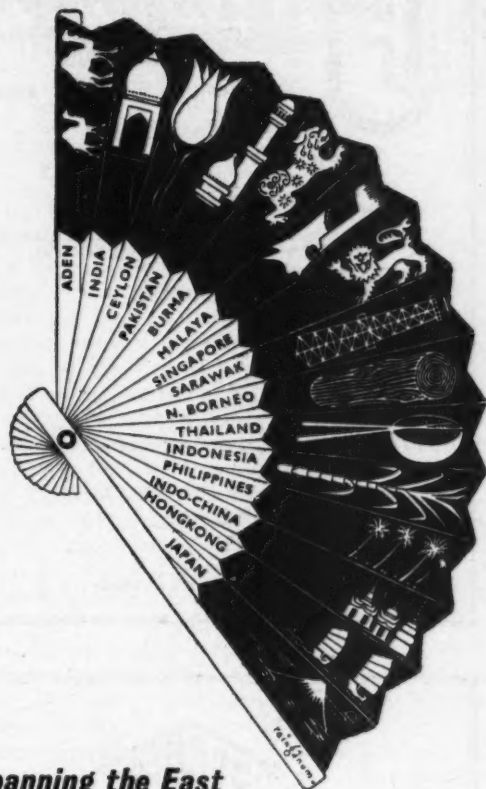
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EASTERN WORLD

London July 1955

Easing the Tension

GRADUALLY, almost imperceptibly, tension in the world has eased over the past few months. It is not difficult to point to a succession of prominent diplomatic moves and say that they have contributed to the easier situation, but it is not such a simple matter to say what has caused them to be brought about. Russia's policy in Europe has become much more conciliatory, and since Chou En-lai's offer to negotiate with the United States over the Formosa situation, there has been a welcome muzzling of those inflammatory elements in America who earlier this year were calling for a show-down with China.

This change of attitude in the capitals of East and West does not mean that each side views the other's political regime with any the less hostility. It is more that the advanced development of nuclear weapons has brought a recognition that recourse to war as a last resort after diplomacy has failed, or as a means of bringing about a retreat of rival philosophies, is scarcely any longer practicable. That is the fundamental reason for the warmer wind. Hence the diplomatic offensive.

This reorientation of policy looks, in essence, as if it will be directed towards winning friends. The majority of nations uncommitted to either side in the ideological struggle are in the continent of Asia, and China showed at the Afro-Asian conference that her primary concern was not to enlist these Asian countries to the cause of Communism (as many commentators forecast she would) but to assure them that China did not constitute an aggressive threat, that she was prepared to sign guarantees to that effect, and that all she wanted was friendly relations in an atmosphere of peace. Most of the countries present were convinced of China's sincerity. China thus made more friends in Asia in six days than the United States had done in as many years. America's mistake was in assuming that those same Asian countries ought to be frightened at the proximity of Communism, and her lack of success was due in part to her insistence that friends become allies, committed to the same ideals as herself.

Many western observers were of much the same opinion about Russia's intentions in Belgrade as they were about China's at Bandung. There was talk of the mountain going to Mahomet, and of wooing Yugoslavia back into the fold, but surely no one seriously believed that Russia for one moment expected Marshal Tito to rush back into Soviet arms because he was called on by such eminent emissaries. The purpose, the apparent *volte face* in Soviet

policy towards Belgrade, is part of the same pattern that gave concessions to the Austrian Chancellor, brought the flags out in their thousands for Mr. Nehru in Moscow, and invited Dr. Adenauer for talks. Russia has been astute enough to recognise that in a nuclear threatened world, neutral and uncommitted friends are as useful as military allies. With China the situation has been clear for some time. The problems that face China are the same as those which confront other Asian countries, and it is essential that she has friendly neighbours with whom she can have amicable diplomatic and commercial relations. The same, of course, is true of Russia to some extent. The conception of a neutral or uncommitted area in the world is a welcome development, and if the Soviet Union can actively sponsor non-interference, her diplomatic position is all the stronger, and the strategic position against her all the weaker.

The big question that now begins to emerge in the light of the Soviet world's new diplomatic offensive, which is using as its corner-stone the principle of non-interference, is that of the Cominform. If Russia is sincere in basing her relations with uncommitted nations on somewhat the same five principles of coexistence that have been signed between India and China, then Moscow's control of foreign Communist parties through the machinery of the Cominform can only appear as an embarrassment. Mr. Nehru has already come out strongly against the continued existence of the Cominform, and it is obvious that the Soviet leaders must see the sense in cultivating his friendship rather than encouraging the Indian Communist Party to work against him. And the same applies to countries other than India. The Soviet Union cannot afford to hamper its diplomacy by allowing national Communist parties to pull in a contrary direction. If it is still the professed belief in the Soviet Union that capitalism has within itself the seeds of its own destruction, then Russia would, from her own point of view, have nothing to lose if she dissociated herself from the Cominform. The trend in Soviet diplomacy so far seems to point to the Cominform's eventual dissolution, but nothing could serve Russia's professed belief in the principle of non-interference in another country's affairs so much as to publicly renounce it.

If this be a fact then there is one other consideration in the context of easing tensions. This is the American conception of "the Free World." At one time this little phrase was nothing more than a cynical expression of American antithesis of Communism. Now, however, it has taken on a more tangible form, and where it has its effect in Asia it is hardly less disturbing than the activities of the Cominform.

The "free world" in Asia has come to mean those places where a certain clique or ruling class is able to exploit American dollars to the detriment of the people. It means a free enterprise world where the gap between those that have and those that have not is considerably widened. Some Asians are inclined to believe that the "free world" is synonymous with "dollar colonialism."

The control the United States apparently exercises through the policy of the "free world" is no less difficult

to realise than that that Russia is accused of exercising through the Cominform. If co-existence is to gain credence from both sides, then it is desirable that all forms of remote control be relinquished.

China's expressed desire to settle the vexed question of Formosa by negotiation and the favourable American reaction to it; the encouraging tone of the communique issued at the end of the Belgrade talks; the easier diplomacy of the Kremlin; and the conciliatory agreement of the Viet Minh over refugees from their territory, are all pointers to a welcome armistice of the cold war. If the United States can now retreat further from its near-fanatical anti-Communist crusade, see the value of having China in the United Nations, and ease the restrictions on trade with the Communist countries—particularly China—then the top level talks at Geneva on the eighteenth of this month could see the beginning of a period of world relationship freed from the fetters of fear.

Pibul Songgram and U Nu

AGE was not the only noticeable difference between the two Asian Prime Ministers—Pibul Songgram of Thailand and U Nu of Burma—who visited Britain last month. Those who heard them talk of their countries could not avoid the feeling that Marshal Pibul was concerned with justifying Thailand's gravitation towards the United States, as an active member of the anti-Communist front; whereas U Nu's attitude was of modest pride in what Burma had achieved within the framework of true independence.

Through the manner of these two statesmen it was possible to judge the different way ten years of resurgent

feeling in Asia had affected their respective countries; the one from independence to a form of economic and committed dependence on a big power, and other from colonial subjection to complete freedom. It was not difficult to assess which country had the greater moral stature and which of these two Prime Ministers, during their travels, had the larger number of diplomatic trump cards in his hand.

Politics in Pakistan

THE internal politics of Pakistan, which looked like straightening themselves out after the Governor-General dissolved the unrepresentative Constituent Assembly last October, are once again entering the realms of nepotism and chicanery.

When the then recently elected East Bengal Government was suspended a year ago and the rule by governor substituted, there were outcries against the move. Now that it has been reinstated there ought to be welcome acclamation, but the way in which this has been done, and the reasons behind it, give sound cause for alarm. The United Front Ministry of Fazlul Huq—which the Prime Minister, Mohammed Ali, accused of all sorts of crimes when it suited him—has been restored by Mohammed Ali with, it appears, the sole object of enlisting its support in his bid to remain Prime Minister in the new Parliament. Mr. Huq is to remain in the background, and the Ministry is to be led by Mr. A. H. Sarkar who was, until recently, Health Minister in the Karachi Government. It is not yet clear what Mohammed Ali has offered Huq and his followers for their support, except perhaps an extension of their power.



The Awami Muslim League which captured the majority of the East Bengal seats in last year's election, does not now support the reinstated Ministry. Although Fazlul Huq headed the East Bengal Government after the 1954 elections, it is Mr. H. S. Suhrawardy, leader of the Awami Muslim League, and Minister of Law in the present central caretaker Government, who has the largest support in East Pakistan. Because this move in Bengal was carried through without the knowledge of Suhrawardy, he has been placed in a position where he can have little alternative but resignation of his Cabinet post. This is exactly what the Prime Minister wants. Mohammed Ali and his close ally, General Mirza, fear the influence of Mr. Suhrawardy whose party not only has the largest following in East Pakistan, but also possibly in West Pakistan too, and should Suhrawardy in his capacity as Minister insist on a free general election in 1956, they know that the Awami Muslim League (which has for many years opposed the internal policies of the Muslim League) would emerge victorious, and that he would probably become Prime Minister.

The new Constituent Assembly is being formed from the Provincial Legislatures, and in this way it is possible for Mohammed Ali to ensure support from a majority of the Muslim League (of which he himself is President) from West Pakistan. The only snag, of course, was East Pakistan, the troublesome wing. But by reinstalling the Huq Ministry, which has the appearance of having been elected before its suspension, and cultivating its favour, he seems to have overcome the snag. It is doubtful in the long run, that he has. Suspicions have been aroused, and the people see in it a trial of strength between the Prime Minister and Ghulam Mohammed, the Governor-General. If, however, the East Pakistan Ministry remains stable and supports

Mohammed Ali, as the majority of the new Constituent Assembly in Karachi are likely to do because they will be Muslim Leaguers, then his position will become strong enough for him to throw Ghulam Mohammed overboard.

Should this happen Pakistan will set sail once again under an unrepresentative Parliament which, like the last, would get more and more out of touch with those they are supposed to be governing. But this reckons without the astute Mr. Suhrawardy, although it will not be easy under such circumstances even for Suhrawardy and those like him who think that Pakistan is ready for democratic elections, to work up sufficient feeling to convince the Prime Minister that the sooner the country goes to the polls the better.

Britain and Viet Nam

THE Foreign Minister's reference to the situation in Indo-China in the first foreign affairs debate in the new British Parliament last month was woefully inadequate. The important matter of the forthcoming elections guaranteed under the Geneva Agreement was first raised in the new House of Commons by William Warbey, M.P., two days before the debate. It was almost wholly ignored by speakers from the Government side, but Mr. Christopher Mayhew, M.P. presented with great clarity the stark issues which confront the British Government, in his reply to the debate on behalf of the Opposition.

He made the point, that this journal has often raised in the last year, that if genuinely free elections are held throughout Viet Nam, it is virtually certain that a majority of the whole population will vote for the Viet Minh.

(Continued on p. 33)

NEHRU IN ROME

By Alvise Scarfoglio (Rome)

IT has been rumoured in some Western daily and weekly Press circles that the Indian Premier will pay a visit to the Pope during his stay in Rome, on July 7, and that the main object of the visit will be a discussion on the future of Goa. No details about these alleged future conversations were available in the said circles, but it may be inferred that they might take the form of a request for the Pope's intervention in favour of India's case with the Portuguese Government. The influence of Catholic circles, and the Vatican, on Salazar's regime are no mystery.

Neither the rumours nor inferences from them have met with any denial in the Vatican Press or from Vatican circles. On the other hand the *Osservatore Romano* on June 2 made known the presence in Italy of no less a person than His Eminence Valerian Cardinal Gracias, Archbishop of Bombay, and leading Catholic prelate in India. He was reported to have gone to Milan from Rome with the aim of attending the centenary celebrations of the Papal Institute for Foreign Missions. The Institute, a congregation of secular priests, was founded in 1850, and had sent a few missionaries to India five years later. It has had several martyrs in many places—Oceania, in 1852, China

in 1941-42, Burma in 1950, and 1953. No missionary from the Institute, however, has ever confessed his faith in blood on Indian soil, but it was found convenient to hold this year the centenary celebrations of the departure of the Institute's first missionaries for India. Cardinal Gracias was present during the whole course of the ceremonies, which took place on June 3, and afterwards granted an interview to the Milan Catholic daily *L'Italia*, official organ of the diocese of Milan. The interview laid stress on the social activities of the Indian Catholic clergy and laity, and ended by mentioning their feeling of responsibility in the struggle against Communism.

No account was given by any organ of information of Cardinal Gracias' days in Rome before his departure from Milan; press accounts of his stay in Rome had started with his departure. The usual observers of Vatican events and politics had remained unsatisfied, for a centenary celebration in one missionary institute—whose foundation was not recurring—afforded insufficient justification for the presence of India's first Catholic prelate. There was no doubt that Cardinal Gracias had been in Rome for several days before leaving for Milan.

Well-informed diplomatic sources stated that he had paid very private visits to the Pope and to the Indian Embassy in Rome. No denial of this has come from the Vatican. The privacy of the visit was justified by the friction that had occurred between the Indian state and the Catholic Church two or three years ago. It can be inferred that the object of Cardinal Gracias' visit to the Pope was in preparation for Mr. Nehru's meeting in July. It should be kept in mind that the Cardinal is both a close personal friend of the Premier, and a Goanese by descent.

International etiquette demands that Mr. Nehru will also call on Italian Governmental authorities. A tradition, going back to the not far distant days when in Italy Church and

State were in conflict, made it compulsory for foreign heads of States and Governments to ask for the permission of Italian authorities before paying a visit to the Vatican. It has now become obsolete, but there is no reason to believe that Mr. Nehru's visit to President Gronchi will not be a purely courtesy one. It has been circulated that the invitation sent to Mr. Nehru had been inspired by the recently-elected head of the Italian State—whose masterful personality was revealed by his election message to Parliament. In denying this, the Italian Foreign Office stated that the invitation had been issued long before President Gronchi's election, in April, but afterwards had to admit that its date was the beginning of May.

ASIA IN WASHINGTON

By David C. Williams (Washington)

AS the world moves into what nearly all Americans hope will be a period of "co-existence," if not genuine peace, interest steadily increases in the role the United States can play in helping the economic development of the new nations of Asia. Most Americans prefer to think in terms of "competitive co-existence" and are confident that economic progress can be made more rapidly under conditions of freedom than of totalitarianism—provided their country plays a full role of which it is capable.

A significant contribution to the debate which is developing about this issue is a brochure, *Partnership for Freedom—Proposals for World Economic Growth*, written by Haldore Hanson, a high official in the US Technical Co-operation Administration while President Truman was in the White House. Hanson spent a number of years in China, both as a journalist and as an American government official, and fully appreciates the fervour of Asian ambitions for economic development and higher standards of living. In preparing his proposals he had the assistance of an advisory committee headed by Robert R. Nathan, a distinguished New Deal economist who is now an economic consultant to the government of Burma.

"History," he writes, "teaches two lessons about raising capital for development: First that all countries which are now developed, without significant exception, produce 90 per cent or more of their development capital within their own economies; and second, that these same countries used large amounts of foreign capital during the decades of transition from a static economy to a period of self-sustaining growth. Without the timely arrival of outside capital, in sufficient amount, the transition collapsed or the direction of development was altered.

"Japan and the USSR, for quite different reasons, tried a 'go-it-alone' policy, using only limited amounts of foreign capital. They squeezed their peasant populations to the starvation point in order to obtain capital for industrialization. Communist China now chooses to follow the same course of development, while India is seeking foreign capital and hopes to raise the standard of living of both its peasant and industrial populations simultaneously."

Noting that countries differed widely in their capacity to use capital assistance effectively, Mr. Hanson singles out India's five-year plan for particular commendation. He points out, however, that shortage of capital is becoming a major problem for New Delhi's planners.

"The United States," Hanson continues, "shall not demonstrate leadership in calling for a programme of free world growth, organized as a partnership of industrialized and under-developed countries designed to stimulate the economic progress of both. The partnership should be separate in membership and administration,

from our system of military alliance. The United States should announce its intention to back it with substantial American resources for an initial ten-year period, and should negotiate similar support from other leaders of the free world.

"The core of the partnership would be this: That the United States and Britain should announce, jointly with Great Britain and other industrialized nations . . . a target (of) doubling within a few years the present flow of capital into under-developed areas, that is, an increase from \$1,500 millions a year to \$3,000 millions a year . . . Public Funds (should) be available, in circumstances where private investment is not doing the job, for such basic economic services as highways, railroads, ports, power plants, water supply, irrigation, reclamation, and for educational and health facilities which are found to be necessary pre-conditions for growth."

Hanson continues: "As the flow of capital into under-developed countries increases, technical assistance services should be enlarged, possibly as much as 50 per cent above the estimated \$200 millions which are now available from all sources. Programme emphases should also be changed. Of the estimated 5,000 technicians now serving abroad under all technical assistance programmes, not 10 per cent are specialists in problems of social organisation, such as public administration, land reform, co-operatives, labour organizations, banks and savings institutions, and community organizations. These problems will grow more conspicuous under the faster tempo of development. Our administrators should work jointly with the host governments to see that our technical assistance is used wherever practicable to meet these needs."

Hanson sounds a note of caution about the use of America's food surpluses, a form of overseas economic aid strongly supported by American farmers' organizations, who are eager to get rid of their depressing influence on the prices of farm products.

"Let no one suppose," he writes, "that a chronic food surplus in one country and a chronic food deficit in another are easily joined . . . Every effort of our government to devise special food transfers, whether by subsidy, barter, two-price system, or giveaway, has interfered to a distressing degree with the legitimate trade of other food-exporting countries . . . Our large shipments of American rice to Japan are the subject of growing bitterness in such rice-exporting countries as Burma and Thailand."

Hanson sees ample scope in his proposed partnership for free world growth for American agencies, United Nations agencies, and regional organizations outside the United Nations. "All," he says, "are needed." He concludes by saying:

"The amount of capital which America and other leaders of the free world should be willing to invest in under-developed countries should be the amount which these countries can effectively use a self-help basis—no more, no less."

GANDHI, NEHRU AND AFTER

By Stanley Alderson

INDIA'S struggle for independence was enhanced—over and above the rightness of the cause—by the greatness and goodness of her millions. Of those millions it is inevitable that a few are well-known, and two only—Mohandas Gandhi and Jawaharlal Nehru—are famous throughout the world. It is remarkable even that there are so many; for what other mass movement of history has contrived to accommodate two great leaders through several decades? Had the characters of Gandhi and Nehru been either similar or complementary, their relationship would be less extraordinary. One can make them sound alike by calling Gandhi a political saint, Nehru a saintly politician; but in fact their characters, their beliefs, even their aims conflicted.

Confronted with poverty, Gandhi—who for a short period of his youth lived almost extravagantly—reduced his own standard of living to that of the humblest. Nehru continued unhesitatingly in modest comfort, but campaigned for land reform and tax-remission and served one of his many terms of imprisonment for exhorting semi-starved peasants not to pay their rent. Gandhi could condone the landlord system, for he was confident it would work well if only the landlords changed their hearts. Nehru decided that man's essential goodness would be encouraged if the landlords were dispossessed. Gandhi abhorred machines and fostered cottage spinning. Nehru believed in craft work to occupy the unemployed in the (long) short-term—which Keynes seems to have endorsed—but he relied on socialist reforms to abolish unemployment and on machines to make the fullest use of employed labour. Gandhi called the Depressed Classes (the casteless) Children of God; like Jesus he both offered them the Kingdom of Heaven and, by example and exhortation, achieved some dramatic successes in changing people's attitude to them. Nehru bided his time, then wrote their rights in the Kingdom of Earth into the Indian Constitution.

Gandhi was a religious man, who spoke of God and argued from ethical postulates; Nehru has ever been pragmatic. Non-violence became Gandhi's creed. Because violence is intrinsically harmful and creates its own problems, Nehru, the pragmatist, declined it usually yet reserved the right to employ it on occasion; he applauded Britain's resolution to fight the Second World War; later he ordered the attack upon Hyderabad. If before the war both men were agreed that the nationalist campaign should be non-violent, their differences were not academic. In February 1922 Gandhi stopped a Civil Disobedience campaign because in a single village the people had burnt down the police-station and killed a number of police. Nehru, already in prison himself, was shattered when he heard the news.

A similar incident occurred in 1932. The Congress Party had decided not to co-operate in implementing the Imperial Government's proposals for reforming the Indian Constitution; partly because effective power was neither given nor promised to the Indians; partly because they included communal electoral rolls, which must accentuate religious and class distinctions and aggravate domestic antagonisms. Nehru was again in prison, and outside Civil Disobedience was again in progress. In September Nehru's "peaceful and monotonous routine in gaol was suddenly upset . . . by a bombshell. News came that Gandhiji had decided to "fast unto death" in disapproval of the separate

electorates given by Mr. Ramsay MacDonald's Communal Award to the Depressed Classes."¹ This not only diverted attention from the nationalist campaign, but by implication recognised the other Communal Electorates. Nor had Nehru any sympathy with fasting at the best of times. Fortunately the Government, always fearful of Gandhi's dying, changed the decision. But much the same happened again in May 1933 when Gandhi announced a twenty-one-day fast.

On these occasions they were unable to discuss matters, for even when both were imprisoned they were kept in different gaols; but they must, throughout their association, have had many long arguments. One can imagine Gandhi blithely agreeing that he was unpredictable, that he must wait upon an "inner voice" for confidence of the rightness of any particular action. Nehru, entirely secular in outlook, feeling the necessity of a long-term plan of action, must have experienced agonies of frustration; yet the pragmatist in him had to recognise that Gandhi's "inner voice," for all its mystic connotations (despite Gandhi's denial of mystic experience), for all its seeming perverseness, had often given the nationalist campaign an impetus that no amount of rational planning could have achieved.

Gandhi's urge to asceticism was profound. He tells in his autobiography that in his sixteenth year he left his sick father's bedside to make love to his wife, and that in his absence his father died; also that his wife was then advanced in pregnancy and that the child she was bearing died a few days after birth. Propensities for asceticism he must have had before, but the guilt he experienced over deserting his father—guilt directly associated with, for him, illicit sexual activity—confirmed them. At thirty-six, with his wife's consent, he took a vow of celibacy—in addition to his dietetic and other renunciations. The urge to expiate guilt by asceticism is common enough. What was rare about Gandhi was that he was successful in so doing. Given his renunciations, he seems always to have been free from any obsession with his own or others' sin, to have been happy, charming and humorous; no typical ascetic—for that matter no typical saint—could have asked if the Four Freedoms included the freedom to be free. Perhaps in his own subjective way Gandhi was a pragmatist: asceticism having brought him genuine happiness, he urged it on others, less for the good of their souls, than that they might be happy in this world. Presumably, too, it was because he was at peace with himself that he could understand his countrymen so well. Those who fail to contend with their own unconscious strivings must, sometimes at least, confuse projections with intuitions. Gandhi's intuition was all but infallible. If India's millions rallied whenever he called them, they did so because he called them only when they were ready.

Nehru, for many years past, has had a power over the Indian people at least equal to Gandhi's. But his power has never depended upon the single intuitive flash, upon the dramatic gesture—far less upon an appeal to India's spirituality. As a young man Nehru was 'becomingly if not abnormally modest. He developed confidence in his abilities only as they were put to the test and proved. Public speaking, administration, writing, popular leadership, negotiation—each was begun tentatively as occasion demanded and mastered by experience. Nehru's

¹ Jawaharlal Nehru, *An Autobiography* (John Lane, The Bodley Head, New Edition, 1942, p. 370).

character incites less speculation than Gandhi's for, despite its singularity, it is free of complexity.

Nehru has integrity, an unsentimental compassion, a personal reliance upon reason and experience, a shrewd understanding of others' unreason and—this in common with Gandhi and many of their countrymen—a barely human tolerance thereof. The British could perpetrate the massacre of Amritsar; could break their word, misrepresent Congress, imprison him, his colleagues, friends and womenfolk; could even batter his aged mother into unconsciousness and leave her bleeding in the roadway—yet “the British” never became a hateful category. Individually they were mostly decent; collectively they had in great measure evolved the concept and practice of political liberty, in defence of which they had made great sacrifices. With each new act of oppression Nehru strove but harder to find an intellectual resolution of the paradox. He accepted the western concept of civil liberties because (though his personal experience of them was slight) he realised that their practice enhanced man's dignity. He rejected western imperialism because it detracted from it: the British Raj distressed him perhaps less than his countrymen's tolerance of it. He accepted the bourgeois sense of honour because society functions more efficiently if people keep their word than if they do not. If some episodes in his life reveal an apparently foolhardy courage whose source must be emotional, one may yet be sure that his courage, like everything else, is indulged only when his reason can justify it.

Nehru's pragmatism admits of sufficient expediency (witness only the arrest of Sheikh Abdullah) for effective political leadership. Gandhi could not compromise with his convictions; he could never have performed, nor would have wished to perform, a prime minister's rôle. Even in pre-war days he dissociated himself from Congress on several occasions when he thought its programme merely expedient. The most important break came during the Second World War. At one time Congress succeeded in persuading Gandhi that India should support the British in the war provided she was given a promise of independence. But Gandhi had been persuaded against his conviction; his adherence to non-violence was fundamental and he recanted.

Not, of course, that a disagreement between Gandhi and Congress was of much practical significance. The Indian people were never required to choose between them. Congress comprised the people's political leaders; Gandhi was their religious leader, and he performed a function analogous to that of a constitutional head of state—he was consulted, he encouraged, he warned.

Gandhi's influence has not diminished with his death; nor has Nehru's critical ambivalence. When he found obstacles—mainly in the powers of the States—to land reform by legislation, Nehru was glad to co-operate with Gandhi's disciple, Vinoba Bhave. He has also encouraged the Community Development in which Gandhian socialism has its finest expression. But he resisted another Gandhian disciple, Sriramulu, who did in fact fast unto death before the Central Government consented to the creation of Andhra State. The purer Gandhians have left the Congress Party and are now in the Praja Socialist Party. But they constitute a very loyal opposition: despite the Congress Party's substantial parliamentary majority, in 1953 Nehru and Jayaprakash Narayan, then the leader of the Praja Socialists, seriously considered a coalition government.

Gandhi was killed at the end of January 1948. Nehru was Prime Minister of the new government of independent India; the only other “strong man” in the Government was Vallabhbhai Jhaverbhai Patel, then Deputy Prime Minister. He and Nehru were said to be in perpetual disagreement—Patel's

Hindu conservatism conflicted with Nehru's secular progressiveness—and to be held together only by Gandhi's influence. In the event, by imposing upon themselves a rigid separation of powers, the two men worked together well. Indeed Patel's death in December 1950 gave Nehru additional responsibilities with which he could scarcely contend. Patel (apart from sharing with Mountbatten the task of merging 600 States) had controlled the party organisation and left Nehru free to concentrate on government. Were Patel alive it is unlikely that Nehru would have talked of resigning the premiership.

In an anonymous article opposing his own re-election to the Congress Presidency before the war, Nehru accused himself of dictatorial propensities. Since he became Prime Minister the charge has been brought by others. It is true, for example, that he overrides other Congress members in the House of the People if he dislikes what they are saying; and that he virtually appointed Morarji Desai Chief Minister of Bombay. Probably most prime ministers are as dictatorial as their cabinets and party allow them to be. Nehru's prestige is so high that he is rarely gainsaid—and with a bigger job to do than has hitherto befallen a leader of a parliamentary democracy he is unlikely to impose much restraint upon himself. Whatever the rights and wrongs of his supremacy, however, many Indians and friends of India are anxious about the difficulties it creates in the succession.

Nehru has now brought Govind Ballabh Pant from Uttar Pradesh (the United Provinces) to the Central Government, as Home Minister and as his own deputy. Like Mendès-France, Nehru has been giving more time and thought to foreign affairs than he has wished; his recent cabinet changes at least enable him to concentrate on the social reconstruction which has been one of his foremost desires. Pant is a good—and uncontroversial—choice for his deputy; but his appointment does not solve the problem of the succession. Pant is older than Nehru.

When Nehru spoke of resigning the premiership, the man who was suggested for a position somewhere between Prime Minister and Overlord was Morarji Desai, Nehru's appointee as Chief Minister of Bombay. Desai it was who introduced an arbitrary law to prevent children of Asiatic descent from attending schools where the medium of instruction was English, a law which would have obliged (for example) Madrassi children living in Bombay to be educated in either Gujarati or Marathi—but which was fortunately held by the Bombay High Court and the Supreme Court of India to conflict with the rights under the Constitution both of individuals and of schools. Desai is still capable of being unpleasant to an Englishman for no reason other than his Englishness. He is a Hindu communalist, and his personal orthodoxy is reputed to be ferocious. Though his ability is proven and his honesty unquestionable—which is why, presumably, he has Nehru's support—he is a reactionary in a country where progress is imperative.

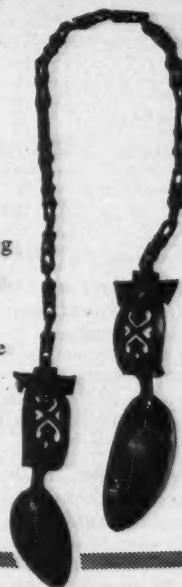
Of other important Chief Ministers, Rajsgopalachari of Madras—who was India's first Indian Governor-General—has just retired; and Dr. B. C. Roy of Bengal—who achieved fame as a surgeon before acquiring most of the important portfolios of the Bengal Government—seems completely immersed in the work of his State. Nehru's personal envoy, Krishna Menon, is sometimes mentioned as a possible successor, but few give him personal support. The strongest claimant in the Central Government is Chintaman Deshmukh, Finance Minister and one-time Governor of the Reserve Bank of India, the only Minister who unquestionably understands certain matters that Nehru does not and of whom Nehru must often ask advice. Deshmukh, however, has the political liability of never having been to prison.

Certainly the Premiership of India—because, on the one hand, of the social reconstruction which has been begun, and, on the other of the country's "non-aligned" rôle in the cold war—is a post crucial to the whole world. Admittedly there is no suitable candidate in reserve. Nonetheless, the alarm about the choice of Nehru's successor is premature. Should Nehru resign the Premiership he would so do, less in order to have a rest, than in order to attend to work previously done by Patel—to strengthen the Congress organisation and to exhort the members, especially the younger ones—in the course of which he would travel round India: Nehru will never ignore the danger of losing touch with India's millions, for whom Gandhi can no longer speak. So long as Congress has a parliamentary majority—and at present it has no serious competitor—its leaders will rule the country.

Nehru, we are told, is now very tired, and by Indian actuarial standards is already an old man. But Nehru, far from being an Indian statistic, is a young sixty-five who has always enjoyed good health and who stands on his head for pleasure. The real problem of his successor need not arise for a decade. The candidates now being discussed are little younger than Nehru and may retire at the same time he himself does. Since Nehru's ultimate successor may at present be between forty and fifty and relatively unknown, we can afford to worry about him when he appears. Meanwhile we may reassure ourselves with the knowledge that a strong leader makes a tradition and thereafter the tradition makes the leader. The next leader of Congress may be, naked, anything from a Hindu communalist to a cottage industrialist; but for personal comfort and for social approval he will be obliged to hide his nakedness in a suit of pragmatic khadi.

Collector's Treasure

This beautiful example of a pair of Norwegian Loving Spoons is carved from one piece of wood, including the decorative chain. These spoons are traditionally a wedding present, from the groom to his bride.



★ From the Riser Collection

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LIPTON'S TEA
Connoisseur's Pleasure

THE JUNGSCHLAEGER TRIAL IN INDONESIA

By an Indonesian Correspondent

FOLLOWING the formal transfer of sovereignty to Indonesia on December 27, 1949, and in accordance with the decisions taken at the Round Table Conference at the Hague, preceding this transfer of sovereignty, land forces under Dutch command in Indonesia, known as the K.L. (Royal Netherlands Army) and the K.N.I.L. (Royal Netherlands Indies Army) were to be withdrawn or to be reorganized within the Indonesian Army in the shortest possible time. It was not until July 27, 1950, that the K.N.I.L. was disbanded. But the last contingent of these troops did not leave Indonesia until May, 1951.

During the period between the end of the Round Table Conference and the disbandment of the K.N.I.L. there was evidence that some officers of the 10,000 K.N.I.L. troops still under Dutch command made contacts with groups of Indonesians in certain parts of the country. In this connection it is noteworthy to recall the chain of armed rebellions which took place (a) in Bandung, West Java (January 23, 1950), 27 days after the implementation of the Round Table Conference's agreement, (b) in Macassar, South Sulawesi (April 5, 1950), and (c) in Ambon, in the Moluccas (April 25, 1950), all of which the newly formed Indonesian Central Government could only overcome with the utmost strength and tactfulness.

It was apparent that these armed insurrections against the legal Government were encouraged through a number of illegal

organisations which already existed or were established at that time. In West Java it was an ex-captain of the K.N.I.L. by the name of Westerling who formed the A.P.R.A., the so-called "Armed Forces of Justice," in which members of the K.N.I.L. took part and which closely co-operated with the Darul Islam, an illegal orthodox Islamic grouping which had been terrorizing some parts of West Java since mid-1948. It was the same Westerling who in a surprisingly frank account (in his book published in 1952) admitted the atrocities conducted towards the local population of South Sulawesi in 1947 at a time when he was in command of the K.N.I.L. in that area. The number of victims in this massacre was estimated at 30,000.

The troubles in Macassar were instigated by a number of K.N.I.L. troops at the time when their incorporation into the Indonesian Army was still being carried out. The Central Government had just managed to quell the disturbances, when a fresh insurrection flared up in nearby Ambon in which again members of the K.N.I.L. under Dutch command actively took part. This Ambon rebellion and the following proclamation of the so-called "Republic of the South Moluccas" made it necessary for the Central Government to send expeditionary forces. There were considerable losses until organised resistance in that area was overcome in November, 1950.

The troubles in some parts of West Java were always the most serious and they present the biggest difficulties today.

Reports reached the Government that Westerling's A.P.R.A. was replaced after its abortive attack on Bandung in January, 1950, by the N.I.G.O. (Netherlands Indies Guerilla Organisation) which in turn continued armed activities in co-operation with Darul Islam bands.

In September, 1953, a Dutch national and ex-captain of the K.N.I.L., Schmidt, was arrested. Charges made against him included involvement in N.I.G.O. activities, actively assisting armed bands of the Darul Islam in clashes with the Indonesian Army between 1952 and 1953. After exhaustive investigations had been made Schmidt was put on trial on September 19, 1954.

In the meantime the Dutch Government had informed the Indonesian Government that they had heard rumours of maltreatment of the detainees. To this Note the Indonesian Ministry of Foreign Affairs replied on October 9, 1954, that the Indonesian Government categorically rejected the accusations according to which detainees of Netherlands nationality were maltreated and forced to make confessions to the detriment of third parties. Investigations made by the competent authorities had proved that the points raised by the Netherlands High Commissariat were without sufficient foundation.

The request made at that time by the Dutch representatives to allow Counsel to contact detainees while the latter were still being examined by the police or the Counsel for the Prosecution could not be complied with as this was not permitted by the existing law of procedure. According to the said law, only from the moment their case has been tried in open court, has assistance been allowed to them. The two Defence Counsels were Mr. H. A. Bouman and Mr. Boegheim. Accordingly the procedure of the trials has so far been conducted along the lines of the established law.

During the trial of Schmidt, statements made by witnesses revealed the existence of an arms storage at a Dutch estate near Bogor in West Java, which had also served as a meeting place for co-ordinating arms supplies to the Darul Islam. It was also during one of these trials that for the first time mention was made of a certain Jungsclaeger being involved in the conspiracy. Jungsclaeger who was a former senior officer of the NEFIS (Dutch Army's Intelligence Service) in the K.N.I.L. was arrested in January, 1954, on charges which included active participation in the N.I.G.O. and involvement in other subversive activities, such as the provision of arms and ammunition to the Darul Islam.

At the beginning of Jungsclaeger's trial, which started on February 17, this year, one of the main witnesses, Manoch, who was once Westerling's driver, told the Court how in 1950, the defendant discussed plans for the rebellion in Amboina. In addition, he related a meeting in April, 1951, between the defendant, Schmidt, and others, at which money was provided for the financing of illegal organisations in West Java. The trial took an unexpected turn when the same witness, Manoch, accused one of the two Dutch Defence Counsels, Mr. H. A. Bouman (who was also defending Schmidt) of offering bribes to him to withhold facts concerning Jungsclaeger. According to Manoch, Mr. Bouman had offered him 150,000 rupiahs and a good position abroad if he would withdraw his statements about Jungsclaeger.

Following this accusation, the Dutch High Commissioner in Indonesia called on the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, and subsequently the Foreign Minister had talks with the Attorney General and the Public Prosecutor. The Foreign Minister informed the Dutch High Commissioner that he considered the Bouman case a serious one because of the charge of delict—a defending Counsel's attempt to bribe a witness. The Chief

Prosecutor, however, stated that Mr. Bouman was free to continue his defence.

On March 12 it is known that the Dutch Government notified the Indonesian Government that "it will place the problem before world opinion" if the "unjust measures" against the arrested Dutch nationals were not ended. When the Jungsclaeger trial was resumed on March 29, the Judge, in reply to a request made by the second Defence Counsel, Mrs. Razak (Mr. Bouman did not attend), said that he was able to provide guarantees for herself and Mr. Bouman during the trials.

The trial was scheduled to be resumed on April 3, but it was postponed on the request of Mrs. Razak on the grounds that Mr. Bouman was not present. She said that he was awaiting a reply from the Minister of Justice to a request that he would be freed from prosecution for the duration of the trial. The Judge in charge, Maengkom, postponed the session until April 18. Meanwhile Mrs. Razak herself had been interrogated by the Public Prosecutor, reportedly on the grounds that she had acted beyond her competence as a Defence Counsel in making contacts with probable witnesses in the Jungsclaeger and Schmidt affairs.

On April 29, Minister Luns, speaking in the Upper Chamber in Holland, said *inter alia* that "the Dutch Government will endeavour to take a less conventional, but in this situation necessary course to solve the problem." On Saturday, April 30, the Indonesian Embassy in London was asked by the Netherlands Embassy to provide visas for Mr. Derek Curtis Bennett, Q.C., and his assistant, Mr. Kenneth Richardson, to go to Indonesia. As they wished to leave for the Hague on the following day, and to proceed thence to Indonesia, the request was made that the visas should be granted at once. The Dutch were informed that the request for visas must be submitted to Djakarta. Without waiting for any communication from the Indonesian authorities, the Netherlands Embassy in London issued a press communique on May 3, stating: "In these circumstances the Netherlands Government has decided to entrust the defence of Jungsclaeger and the other accused to a foreign lawyer of international reputation. Mr. Curtis-Bennett and his Junior, Mr. Kenneth Richardson, will travel to Djakarta at the earliest possible date."

The request for visas by Mr. Curtis-Bennett and Mr. Kenneth Richardson with the purpose of taking up the defence of Jungsclaeger raised important issues for the Indonesian Government. Had a foreign lawyer the right to practice in the Indonesian Court? On this issue there is as yet no statutory ruling. It is not clear why it is expected that permission should be granted to a British lawyer to plead in Indonesia. In Britain, a foreign lawyer cannot, unless called to the English Bar, advise on English Law or draw legal documents in accordance with English Law nor can he take any proceedings in the English Courts. None but a member of the English Bar has a right of audience in the English Courts.

Indonesia is an independent State, which means that the Indonesian Bar not only enjoys similar rights as in other countries but also similar protection. The question of permitting a foreign lawyer to practise as Defence Counsel for the Dutch citizens on trial in Djakarta was necessarily referred to the High Court of Justice, a procedure which involves further consideration.

As Judge Maengkom stated, there is no regulation whatever allowing or forbidding the engagement of a foreign lawyer, though, in his opinion, it does not seem fitting that a foreign lawyer should be engaged since he has not taken the oath of loyalty to the Indonesian State, so that he is not under the same

obligation of respecting Indonesian Law as are members of the Indonesian Bar. Moreover, a foreign lawyer is neither acquainted with the Indonesian language nor with the Indonesian Law. With regard to Mr. Bouman, although he is a foreign lawyer, he was registered as a Barrister in Indonesia where he has practised for the past twenty years, and he was also acknowledged as a member of the Indonesian Bar.

On May 12, when the trial was postponed for the twelfth time, both Mr. Bouman and Mrs. Razak were absent. The defendant Jungsclaeger requested that Judge Maengkom should accept an English lawyer as a substitute for one of his lawyers, Mr. Bouman, who declared himself unable to continue to act as Defence Counsel. The Judge stated that he was in principle against the employment of a foreign lawyer as long as there were other lawyers in Indonesia capable of performing the task. On Jungsclaeger's request he postponed the trial and stated that it would be resumed on May 27.

On May 16, a new development occurred when the Dutch radio announced the sudden arrival of Mr. Bouman in the Netherlands. The Dutch High Commissariat in Djakarta issued a statement that "Mr. Bouman's decision to withdraw himself from the defence of Jungsclaeger has been made without the knowledge of any Dutch authority." On investigation, the Indonesian authorities found that Mr. Bouman had left on a KPM boat on May 6, sailing for Singapore, having changed his name to J. Bosman. Although Mr. Bouman's office is in the building of the Dutch High Commissariat in Djakarta, a spokesman of the Commissariat stated to the press that Mr. Bouman's flight had taken place without their knowledge.

The Attorney General immediately ordered investigations

to be made as to the way in which Bouman had been able to leave Indonesia without the knowledge of the Indonesian authorities concerned although they were informed already that Bouman was temporarily not allowed to leave Indonesia. The Chief Prosecutor told the press on May 16, that by the flight of Bouman the trust of the Indonesian Government had once again been betrayed since he had not expected that this Dutch lawyer who had been practising in Indonesia for twenty years was capable of such an unfair act.

The sudden disappearance of Mr. Bouman has inevitably been given considerable publicity in the Indonesian press. Journalists have asked whether officials of the K.P.M. and other Dutch organisations were directly or indirectly involved, whether Mr. Bouman was anxious to escape further publicity and whether his disappearance was being used as an excuse for the Dutch request for a foreign lawyer to take his place? Some journalists commented that although Mr. Bouman's illegal disappearance was not known to the Netherlands High Commissariat in Djakarta he was immediately received by Minister Luns at his arrival in the Netherlands.

In view of all the important issues that are involved, it must be clear that, (a) the Dutch request for a visa for Mr. Curtis-Bennett is not just a case of granting an entry permit to a foreigner. It involves legal problems which have to be carefully considered; (b) since the trial of these Dutch nationals concerns persons charged with subversive activities against the legal Government, the integrity of the Indonesian State is at stake; and (c) there is the problem of respecting Indonesian Law. Such are the facts concerning the Jungsclaeger case and the Dutch request for the engagement of a British lawyer.

CEYLON'S PUBLIC SERVANTS REBEL

By Gamini Navaratne (Colombo)

THE rank and file of public servants in Ceylon are waging a relentless battle against the Government over salary increases and trade union rights. United as one body under the All Island Committee of Public Service Associations, they have pledged to fight on till their demands—thirty-five in number—are met. In this struggle they have the sympathy of most other trade unions including the powerful Mercantile Union and the Trade Union Federation.

The latest bombshell let off by these disgruntled public servants is that they will form a political party—to be called the "Servants of Lanka"—to contest the United National Party Government led by Sir John Kotelawala at the next General Election. For this purpose prospective candidates and the more enthusiastic supporters will resign their posts. This perhaps will be the first time anywhere in the world that government servants will form a political party.

The leanings of this party, as hinted in its secret manifesto, appear to be socialistic. It states that recent developments in the employer-employee relationship, both in the private sector of employment as well as under Government, indicate a deteriorating situation. The manifesto cites the recent bus strike which failed because the Government intervened on behalf of the employers. That, it states, is a very unhealthy state of affairs and a portent of things to come. It adds: "In the peculiar economy of Ceylon where even the peasant is really working the fields of absentee landlords, the entirety of the national income comes from the toil of the worker. Yet the provision of social amenities, the amelioration of the condition of living

and financial relief show a marked bias towards the propertied class."

They have decided to bring their wives into the active field of campaigning for better working conditions and bigger pay-packets.

A group of the proposed party; who style themselves the "Underground Committee," are working actively behind the scenes preparing the way for the birth of the party. They are waiting for an opportune moment to come into the field and campaign openly.

Unconfirmed reports of an impending split within the UNP have encouraged the men to defy the Government. It is said that before the year is out a section of the UNP led by Mr. Dudley Senanayake, former Prime Minister and his cousin, Mr. R. G. Senanayake, a former Cabinet Minister, may break away and join the Sri Lanka Freedom Party of Mr. S. W. R. D. Bandaranaike, or form their own party. The Senanayakes are known to be sympathetic towards the demands of the public servants.

The decision of the public servants to form a party is the result of dissatisfaction at the Government's attitude towards their demands. Negotiations, petitions, appeals and even threats have failed to achieve any concessions, when, in the face of a united demand by 44 public servants' unions, the Government has decided to make small increases in the salaries of lower grades of the service.

The Prime Minister who met a deputation of public servants once has refused to meet them again. It is understood he has

said that no further salary increases will be made and that they would not be granted full trade union rights. The Government, he says, will be firm in dealing with "trouble makers" and discontented elements should leave the service.

Evidence of the Government's decision to act with firmness is already apparent. It is going all out to break the morale of the trade union movement in the public service. Coercion and persuasion are some of the methods employed and a salary increase of five to ten rupees a month for the lowest paid government servants, has taken much of the wind out of the sails of the movement.

Public servants are now being persuaded to join volunteer military units in their respective departments. These units will form the reserve of the Army, Navy and the Police which, too, are being strengthened. Volunteers will be given extra allowances, leave with pay, free food and clothing whilst in training. By this the Government hopes to attract the men away from their trade union activities. The offer is open to persons outside the service too.

Even more sinister, is the formation of a special branch of

the police set up to detect political enemies of the Government. This squad will shadow the movements of public servants suspected of "anti-Government activities." It came into being in April with the personal blessings of the Prime Minister. This squad will also present the Public Service Commission—which makes all top-ranking appointments in Government—with the history sheets of candidates aspiring to office. The political leanings of candidates will be given more weight than their intellectual attainments.

The public servants are now fighting back with vigour. The unions have rejected the salary increases in principle; members have been asked not to accept the enhanced salaries. Members have also been warned not to enlist in the volunteer military units as it will be detrimental to their cause. The response to enlist in these units, as such, has been very poor.

However, public servants labour under one difficulty. Their unity is not solid. Though all are agreed as to their goal, they differ widely on the means. Whilst some favour constitutional means, the radicals urge the use of the strike weapon. This situation is partly due to the fact that as yet no common leadership has emerged.

LEAN DAYS FOR GULMARG

By Bernard Llewellyn

FROM Sringar to Tanmarg there is a motor road 25 miles long, and over the latter part of it the bus grinds along in low gear as the mountain wall ahead becomes appreciably nearer. By the time the bus has got to the Tanmarg market place it has reached the end of its tether. To get to Gulmarg—four miles farther on—you must walk or go by pony. There is no luggage problem; for immediately you alight from the bus you are attacked by a horde of coolies waving their numbered tin plaques in your face, and each of them is desperately anxious to be chosen to carry your bedroll and other baggage up the 1,200 ft. mountain path to Gulmarg. For this back-breaking, breath-shuddering task he will charge twelve annas (the equivalent of one shilling), and if you give him twopence for himself when he gets to the top he will bless you as generous. For Kashmir is a poor state, and the hill-people who live among some of the loveliest scenery in the world are among the poorest of India's people.

Gulmarg is trying to make a come-back as a tourist resort under Government encouragement; but all the time its past hangs like a shadow over the present. The ghost of that recent past haunts the abandoned shops and deserted tourist huts, the stony paths along which the pony wallahs canter looking for passengers, the empty hotels where the washing facilities become less adequate with every day that passes, the closed wooden shed which was once the Regal Cinema, the deserted golf course where a coolie says "I teach you play, sahib!" every time I pass.

I chose to stay at a cheap hotel—built of pine like all the other buildings hereabouts. There were no other guests. The owner, a bearded Sikh with a blue turbaned head and a dirty woollen shirt hanging outside his trousers, explained that things were not what they were.

"We used to have between 7,000 and 8,000 visitors

resident here during the season. All the huts and hotels were full. Everything was tidy when the British used to come here. Anyone who dared to make water on the street was fined five rupees on the spot. It's all very different now as you can see, though the Government is trying to do something."

Whenever you asked when this change had taken place in the fortunes of Gulmarg, you always got the same answer—1947, the year of Independence, the year of Partition. It was the year too when the tribesmen from the Frontier swept across newly created Pakistan, through the town of Baramulla, overran Gulmarg, and got to within a few miles of Srinagar itself.

These raiding tribesmen are not forgotten in Gulmarg. The pony-wallah who came with me to the summit of the 14,500 ft. Apherwat ridge overlooking the pine forests and upland meadows of Gulmarg lost a horse to the raiders. "Four or five men with guns surrounded me. They would have killed me if I had not given up the horse." And not only horses went from Gulmarg. Women were stolen too and brass ornaments and pots that the ignorant tribesmen thought were gold. Muslims as well as Sikhs and Hindus suffered in the raids.

During and after the trouble people moved out; businesses were abandoned and shops that had catered for the British and other tourists were boarded up. They have stayed like that for seven years. They are like it still. And as I walked down the empty streets in the evening, I was reminded of ghost towns in old Western films, like the one I once drove through in a Hollywood studio. The broken wood carvings on the verandahs and the eaves of the roofs, the glassless windows and the faded paint of the shop names eloquently tell of the change that has come over Gulmarg.

On a hill in the middle of the rolling meadowland stands the English church. Here even the memorial plaques have been stripped from the walls and only the stained glass window at the altar remains as an adornment. On another hill the tiny cemetery preserves the names of British army officers and their families who died here.

"When the British were here," said a huge missionary-educated Kashmiri Brahmin to me in Tanmarg, "Gulmarg was known for its four G's—Golf, Girls, Gin and Gymkhana. I used to make fifty rupees a day in season. Now I'm lucky if I make fifty annas!" He was probably exaggerating, though the broad impression is true enough. The men who lived off the British still bemoan "the good old days."

And what of the present and immediate future in Gulmarg and the other places in beautiful Kashmir? Politically, the barometer is uncertain. In Pakistan I found a fervent belief that, given a free election, the Vale of

Kashmir would go to Pakistan. Certainly there are more than enough Muslims here to implement that belief *if* they voted as the Pakistanis hope. But it is a big *if*. Religion is not the sole factor involved. People with an eye to their future prosperity may well decide in favour of India which is trying to build up Kashmir's prosperity while she has possession.

Yet although a question-mark hangs over the future of Gulmarg and similar places, some people at least are making up their minds. My hotel keeper was one of them. I complained about the huge puddles in the bathroom floor and the rickety beds. "It's true. I've done no repairs for six years. I've not known what was going to happen. But I'm going to have the place repaired this year."

He had decided. There would be more tourists coming, even if they were not British—coming up the winding mountain path from Srinagar and India.

TROUBLE IN SINGAPORE

By Alex Josey (Singapore)

(EASTERN WORLD Correspondent in South-East Asia)

FOR three months, ever since Mr. David Marshall became the head of Singapore's first mainly elected Government, there has been considerable labour trouble in the Colony. At one time eight different strikes were going on in various parts of this island of a million and a quarter persons, mostly Chinese. A bus workers strike, encouraged by children and youths and girls still at school, resulted in a riot which led to the foul mob-murder of four persons, one of them an American reporter known for his sympathetic understanding of Asian nationalism.

The reasons for the workers' unrest are many, and they are, of course, not unconnected with the Colony's first substantial move towards democracy. Mr. Marshall, leader of the Labour Front, claims he is a Socialist, although many of his friends consider him more of an Idealistic Humanist than a politician. During the elections he made some rather fiery speeches attacking in intemperate language both colonialism and capitalism. He made many wild promises, and on one occasion spoke about the streets of Singapore running with blood if the workers did not get a fair deal.

It would be wrong to suggest that these speeches were responsible for the trouble which started almost as soon as Mr. Marshall formed his government. They were not worse than speeches made by candidates of other parties. But the very fact that fiery speeches were possible, that, once again, crowds could gather to listen to speeches, impressed the workers and convinced them that the colonial government was at an end. Then, when a Labour Front government took the place of the old regime, the workers felt that, at long last, here was a government which would be on their side; for in their eyes a colonial government was inseparable from a businessman's government. And for years in Singapore this had been true.

The snag was that Mr. Marshall's government was unsupported by a political party which represented the workers. For the Labour Front is not itself a political party, nor is it a combination of political parties. In fact it was an election device invented for the sole purpose of obtaining seats in the Assembly. The intention was that the Front would dissolve when this objective had been achieved. Consisting of an almost non-existent Socialist Party, a racial organisation of Indians, and certain individuals, the Labour Front was never considered by its sponsors as ever becoming even the basis for a government. None of the people concerned thought for one moment that the Progressive Party would be so heavily defeated at the polls.

As it turned out, the Labour Front obtained 24 per cent of the voting, but this was sufficient to gain them victory. In most constituencies the people voted against the Progressive Party because this was the party which collaborated with the old colonial government, and by so doing they voted the Labour Front men into office. That was how it happened, and no one was more surprised than the Leader of the Labour Front.

Easily the most important and the most popular of the political parties which took part in that election on April 2nd, was the Peoples Action Party, headed by Mr. Lee Kuan Yew, a brilliant Cambridge-educated 32 year-old lawyer. Strongly supported by trade unions, well organised, at the time five thousand strong, the Peoples Action Party was uncompromisingly anti-colonial and socialistic. They wanted independence now. Attacking the new constitution as being a sham, the Peoples Action Party pointed out that the Governor could veto any of the laws by the Assembly, and that Colonial officials still maintained control of defence and internal security, the judiciary and finance. For these

reasons they refused to fight the election under this constitution. But, to show their belief in the validity of constitutional change, the Peoples Action Party decided to put up four candidates in the hopes of getting a minority into the Assembly, there to argue, in parliamentary manner, for a revision of the constitution. Three of the four candidates were returned. Together these four collected 13,634 votes. Seventeen Labour Front candidates polled 42,300; and in only two instances did successful Labour Front men get absolute majorities over their opponents. Consequently we had the rather odd situation in which the Government took office having secured slightly more than one quarter of the votes cast.

To strengthen his position, the Governor gave two of his Nominated Members to Mr. Marshall. Because, by law, the ex-officio Ministers (the Attorney General, the Financial Secretary and the Chief Secretary) must support the Government in office, this meant that, in an Assembly of 32, the Labour Front could command 18 votes. This is made up of 10 elected Labour Front men, two nominated Labour Front men, three elected members of what is known as the UMNO-MCA Alliance, and the three ex-officio Ministers. In Opposition are the three Peoples Action Party members, four Progressives, two Democrats and three Independents, and two Nominated Independents.

How long Mr. Marshall remains in office will depend upon many things, not the least being his ability to keep his own side happy. On the face of it there is no good reason why his Government should not carry on for the full term of four years, although it is doubtful if the Labour Front election promises will all be carried out. During the election Mr. Marshall promised personally that he would work towards the complete removal of the Emergency Regulations which have been in force for seven years to enable the police to cope with the Communist revolt. Almost the first thing he did was to take away some of the powers of the police under these Regulations. Then came the defiance of the students followed immediately by the riot, and back to the police Mr. Marshall reluctantly handed the Emergency Powers which he had taken from them such a short while before.

Unwisely, Mr. Marshall blamed his political opponents for the labour unrest. He said they wanted to bring down his Government. Mr. Marshall was referring, of course, to the Peoples Action Party. The allegations, made in the Assembly, and elsewhere, were strenuously denied by Mr. Lee Kuan Yew and his followers. It was true that some of the unions on strike were unions which supported the Peoples Action Party. It was also true that some of the trouble had been brewing for a long time. But there is no evidence whatsoever to support the allegation that the Peoples Action Party have fomented strike in order to embarrass the Marshall Government. On the contrary, the Peoples Action Party have promised Marshall their full support so long as he follows out the Socialist Plan he designed at the Labour Front's platform.

At the same time it must be conceded that some of the

more militant trade unionists (who are also members of the Peoples Action Party) have been hasty in their use of the strike weapon, and perhaps thoughtless in their use of language when arousing workers. Most of the workers' grievances have been genuine, and most likely, with patience, could have been satisfactorily settled. But few trade union leaders understand the art of negotiation, and some, connected in some way or another with several unions, enjoy the positions of power they have created. One of the powerful figures in the trade union movement is Assemblyman Lim Chin Siong. He is twenty-two, and a mob-rousing orator of some considerable ability.

No one knows for sure if the trouble is being exploited by the underground Malayan Communist Party. Possibly, but so far the police have produced scanty evidence to support wild statements that the Communists are behind all the strikes and threats. Much more likely is that the toilers in Singapore genuinely believe that it is going to be much less difficult to lessen the wide gap between themselves and the rich than it was under the Colonial Government. We can perhaps get a better perspective if we remember that the majority of the people in Singapore live in shack-town type of dwellings made out of tin cans and attap leaves.

The wave of so-called general or sympathetic strikes which broke out the first week of June was obviously a try-on by a little group of rather silly, and rather young power-seekers (some of whom are not trade unionists) to intimidate the Marshall Government into settling the Harbour Board strike. This particular strike is justifiable in the eyes of many; it is conducted by a professional servant of the union, who understands the purpose and ethics of trade unionism. The little group of self-appointed "labour leaders" (some of whom have never done a day's work in their lives), however, remembered that pressure had caused Marshall to intervene in the original bus strike. It had also caused a riot in which four persons lost their lives.

But this time Marshall answered by arresting six men, trade unionists, not for their trade union activities, he explained, but because of their threat to internal security. Immediately, the little group of agitators switched the purpose of the general strike. Now it was in protest against the arrest of these men under the Emergency Regulations. This, they quickly saw, was a much better excuse. Certainly Mr. Marshall was unwise in using Emergency Regulations, which, during the election he had promised to remove, to settle the trouble. There were laws under which the men could have been arrested and tried in open court.

Perhaps it was feared that the intimidation which drove all the taxis off the streets might also try to interfere with trial in open court. Whatever the reason, there is not the slightest doubt that Mr. Marshall has worried even moderate opinion in the trade unions by resorting to the use of Emergency Regulations. A firm hand he must use, if necessary, to maintain law and order; but not this way.

THE PROBLEM OF U.S. BASES IN JAPAN

By a Special Correspondent

Peasants from Uchinada angrily protest to Japanese officials against the use of their village land and fishing grounds as firing range for US troops



JAPAN has an organisation which is probably unique in the modern world—a National Congress Against American Bases. The leading committee of this body includes no fewer than 56 Members of Parliament from all parties, 41 notabilities in the world of art and science, 39 members of peace organisations, 24 trade union leaders, 16 representatives from peasant unions, 15 from women's organisations, 10 from students, and 6 from religious bodies.

If Japan is unique in possessing such an organisation, it is without doubt due to her being unique in two other respects. First, there are now between 750 and 800 US bases on Japanese soil, holding about 300,000 military personnel. Secondly, Japan was the first country where the Americans tried out the A-bomb, and the first country to be victim of the H-bomb experiments.

That in itself would be sufficient to explain the feelings of the Japanese people regarding these bases. But there is more to it than that. Each of these 800 odd bases means the loss of land and livelihood for hundreds of Japanese peasants and fishermen. Each of them means the loss of freedom in the areas neighbouring the bases, since strict military control is exercised by the American forces. Each of them means the invasion of sleep at night by gunfire practice, and the constant peppering of peasant huts by rifle bullets. I saw many photos of these huts, the walls and furniture dotted all over with the tell-tale marks of rifle-fire. But what has angered the Japanese people at least as much as the loss of land, livelihood, sleep and liberty is the effect of these bases on the children, and the licentious behaviour of the American soldiers. The sound of children singing in school is drowned by the scream of aircraft overhead. The children's attention to their school teachers is constantly diverted by the raucous shouts of drunken G.I's. Around each base there has grown a cesspool of vice, in which young girls become prostitutes. In one year alone the prostitutes serving the American forces are reported to have earned 2 million dollars.

This theme of the American bases, and their appalling effect on the lives of young Japanese, is the subject of Japanese films, paintings, books and articles.

While I was in Tokyo I saw a private showing of parts of a film being made by one of Japan's leading film directors, Kamei. The theme of the film is the effect of the American bases on the lives of the Japanese, and the struggle of the Japanese people against these bases. The audience was deeply moved by the

harrowing scenes depicted in this film—scenes which provided such a frank and appalling picture of the corruption of Japanese youth by the American occupation that I doubt whether they would ever be allowed at a public showing in Britain. This film, when completed, will doubtless do much to stimulate Japanese feeling still further against the American occupation.

The Japanese Teachers' Union have produced a booklet, *Children of the Military Bases*, which is composed of letters written by schoolchildren in these bases. It makes shocking reading. Shimizu Tokuzu, a schoolboy in Hukuoka, sums up the feelings of practically the whole of Japan when he writes:

"Our town of Hukuoka again dreams the bad dreams of war. . . . Scarcely are we awake in the morning when we hear with our own ears a terrible sound which shocks us to the core. Truly the bombers are hateful things which kill men. While we are in school they pass noisily just over the roof of the school. The trees themselves seem scarcely to be able to live breathing this infected air. . . . Night and day there is a continual uproar. Noise, uproar, the sound of fighting, the spirit of the dead—this is the military base at Hukuoka. All this plunges me into thought which makes me forget my studies! . . . I hope with all my heart that this military base will be closed as soon as possible—it is my only wish."

It is no wonder that the campaign against these bases has won the support of the majority of the Japanese people. In the forefront of this whole campaign in the past two years has been Uchinada. Uchinada captured the imagination of the people as no other base did. This is mainly because it was one of the new bases which the Americans tried to establish after the truce in Korea. The peace sentiments of the Japanese, which were gratified when the truce was signed, were outraged by this move on the part of the Americans to extend their bases still further.

The people of Uchinada determined to do everything they could to prevent their land being used as a military base. For many weeks they organised a sit-down on the firing-range itself. The peasants were helped by the fishermen, who defied the American prohibition on fishing, and continued to fish as hitherto. Transport workers prevented the transport of military supplies to Uchinada. Other workers sent food, clothing and money, made protests to the government, organised demonstrations. Every time a Minister came to visit the Prefecture, huge demonstrations took place. Angry peasants, with the women well to the fore, hurled the armed police aside, forced their way into Government and civil buildings, shook their fists at the trembling Ministers, thumped on the desk and voiced their

protests. Peasants who had never before left their villages, travelled up to Tokyo to talk to Members of Parliament and address public meetings.

June 15, 1954, was the first anniversary of the Uchinada struggle. To mark the occasion, a special "Peace Pagoda" was erected in Uchinada, as a symbol of the people's will to save their village.

In the past year, further villages have been engaged in actions against the attempts of the American forces to establish military bases. In September 1954 the inhabitants of Otakane village, Yamagata prefecture, compelled the abandonment of the plan to turn their village into a firing range. The official *Kyodo News Agency* report explained that the decision to abandon the base was due to the pressure of the "infuriated villagers."

During the same month, representatives of 33 fishermen's unions met in Kyoto to plan their opposition to the establishment of Wakasa Bay as a base for naval manoeuvres. Two weeks later a campaign was begun at Mito city, Ibaraki prefecture, against the arrival of fresh American marine forces. At the same time, campaigns were begun on Shikoku island and Omishima. The following month a campaign began at the town of Usui, against the American military use of Mount Myogi; and 80 per cent. of the residents of Koton, a town north-west of the city of Sapporo, on Hokkaido, signed petitions protesting against the American seizure without compensation of 30 per cent. of the town's land.

A significant victory was the announcement by Mr. John Foster Dulles, in September, that the US will return Amami Island to Japan. Behind this statement lies a long struggle by the islanders against US occupation. During 1953 a representative conference of the people was held—the first of its kind ever to take place on the island. The conference was followed by a monster demonstration demanding an end to US occupation.

In August, 1953, the inhabitants staged a big hunger strike. This was supported by the 180,000 Amami residents who live on the main islands, and during the following months over a million signatures were collected in support of the appeal for

the return of the island. The victory on Amami has had a powerful effect on the people of Okinawa and the other Ryuku islands, who have since stepped up their campaign for an end to American occupation.

In January, 1955, workers and peasants in the Myogisan area in Gunma Prefecture started fresh actions against a US attempt to establish a military base there, which the American authorities had been trying to do since early in 1953. Eventually in March this year, the Japanese government was forced to announce that it had cancelled its decision to allow the Americans to build a base there.

In the same month, another major battle of the bases began—this time at the foot of the sacred Mount Fujiyama. The protest movement met on March 12, headed by the city mayor. Within a few weeks, the campaign had been joined by the Governor of Yamanashi Prefecture, who was elected Chairman of the protest movement, and the mayor of Fujiyoshida was elected Vice-Chairman. Other mayors in the prefecture also joined. In May there were clashes with the police when demonstrators paraded against the US forces who were engaged in firing practice, but the parade continued, compelling the firing practice to end. So great grew the protest movement that the Lower House was compelled to debate the issue and to agree to send an inspection team to the Fujiyama area. This struggle is still continuing—and meanwhile similar activities by the Japanese people are taking place at Kisaragu City, Chiba Prefecture; at Murayama City, Yamagata Prefecture; and near Niigata City in Niigata Prefecture.

Because Japan is industrialised, and because of its strategic position in relation to the China mainland, Korea and South-East Asia, it has been the American plan to make Japan the main arsenal, military base and repair-shop for the American forces in the Pacific area. Theoretically, Japan is a good military base for America. But so far the Japanese people have prevented it from being a reliable, stable base. And if they have their way, it will be no sort of military base at all.

LONDON NOTEBOOK

Muslim Festival

East and West met in an atmosphere of colour and gaiety when Muslims in London celebrated Id-ul-Fitr on May 24. Pakistanis, Indians, Arabs, Malaysians, Africans and Europeans mingled in extreme cordiality as they gathered at the Mosque at Putney in London's Southwest for prayers and afterwards to break the fast with *biryani* and hot curry. The London Mosque belongs to the Ahmadiya community.

Some five hundred people listened to the sermon of the Imam, Maulud Admad Khan, who explained the significance of the day and the purpose of fasting. Fasting created within oneself the power to resist evil forces. It has a social value as well, since it made people, whatever their social standing, understand the meaning of hunger and thirst and thereby be more charitable and generous to others.

Representatives of the ambassadors of many countries with Muslim populations took part in the celebrations. Many non-Muslims were present in the congregation as guests.

Research in India

Science was taking a new shape in India, according to Professor Sir Alfred Egerton who gave a survey of scientific research in India in his Holland Memorial lecture to the Commonwealth Section of the Royal Society of Arts recently. And he was inclined to think that the civilization of the future lay not along the extreme technology of the west nor in the direction of despotic communism, but "in the hands of those whose ancient traditions and spiritual insight can perhaps give a fresh turn to the wheel which shapes man's future."

Sir Alfred has been to India twice since its independence and on the last occasion he was the Chairman of a committee which reviewed the work of the Indian Council of Scientific and Industrial Research. He found that the country had made tremendous scientific progress in the last few years. The Prime Minister and the Government of India, he said, have recognised that science holds the key to India's future. One of the objects of the five-year plan has been started as "the

development of a scientific temper in the people" and scientific research has been a portfolio directly under the Prime Minister.

The expenditure on scientific research, however, is only a small fraction of the twenty-five per cent under the heading "Miscellaneous" in the Plan. But it has recently been decided to increase the expenditure.

Sir Alfred mentioned that in the first five years since independence, 12 new laboratories were established, 328 finance schemes were financed, 207 Indian and 21 foreign patents were filed, and over a thousand research papers communicated. He paid a tribute to the executive ability of the late Dr. S. S. Bhatnagar, who was the first director of the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research. "It was his energy that gave shape to Mr. Nehru's determination to bring science to the fore in India's plan for the future."

Chinese Miners visit Scotland

During the greater part of May, Scottish Miners entertained a small delegation of Chinese miners whose hospitality their own delegation enjoyed last year. This delegation headed by the 46-year-old Chairman of the Chinese Mineworkers' Union, Mr. Chin Chih-fu, did a thorough round of the pits,

making personal contacts with a large number of miners and their families. It wound up the visit by spending a week at Dunoon, where some sixty young students at the annual Miners' School, the pick of Scotland's younger generation of miners, questioned all its members to their heart's content through its able and most patient interpreter, Mr. Kuo Mao-an, who showed a truly amazing capacity for understanding Scottish jokes, spoken in the broadest Scots, and translating them with obviously the desired effect.

Of particular interest to these young Scottish miners was the fact that the delegation included one of the leading pioneers in the introduction of Soviet-made combine machines at the Tatung Colliery in Shansi, which have increased the coal output there sixteen times between 1950 and 1954. "Wee Chang," as he soon became—his real name is Chang Fu, told them how the introduction of machines which would cut and load over 500 tons of coal in a day—as much as several hundred miners could do by hand—had so increased productivity per head that wages had been trebled.

Lord Birdwood on Kashmir

The Anniversary Lecture at the Annual Meeting of the Royal Central Asian Society, held on June 9 at the Royal Society of Arts, was delivered by Lord Birdwood who spoke on "Kashmir Today." Having only just returned from that country, Lord Birdwood's observations were of particular and topical interest. Concerning the water dispute, he explained that, while it was true in a sense to say that "who controlled Kashmir controlled the waters of Pakistan," this was not all-significant. The ability to control the waters was related to the ability to remove and use the waters. India could dam up, but could not remove the rivers. If Kashmir, like the Sudan had deserts, then there would be a danger to Pakistan. However, Kashmir had sufficient water, and the argument that Pakistan water supply was endangered if she did not control Kashmir, was irrelevant.

Referring to the suggestions that Pakistan should take Kashmir although it had acceded to India just as India had taken Hyderabad and Junagadh which had acceded to Pakistan, Lord Birdwood said that these cases were not quite the same. The former two

states had been completely surrounded by Indian soil and the sea, and therefore depended entirely on Indian trade for their economic existence. Kashmir, in contrast, lies outside both countries and has been trading with both.

Lord Birdwood did not blame India for flying out troops to Srinagar in October 1947, but thought she had made a mistake, or rather committed a sin of omission, as no one from India telephoned to Karachi before sending forces, suggesting that the problem of the invading tribesmen should be tackled by both countries together.

Commenting on the present situation, Lord Birdwood had the impression that Pakistan's case was not now presented with the same enthusiasm and fire that was the case when Sir Mohammed Zafrullah Khan was in charge. This may be due to the realisation that Kashmir would possibly be a great financial liability, as Pakistan could not afford to subsidise the country as India is doing now. Nobody could be quite certain what the result of a plebiscite would be today. Whereas Srinagar would doubtless join India as the traders would follow the money, the further West one moves the more likely it seems that people would decide for Pakistan. The release of Sheikh Abdullah, which surely would have to come some time, would throw Kashmir into the melting pot again, as the peasants would follow him wherever he chose.

Lord Birdwood's suggestion for the next step towards the solution of the Kashmir problem is that a Round Table Conference of all Kashmiri shades of opinions should be organised, with Indian and Pakistani observers participating.

Shrimata Shanta Rao

After two hours during which her audience has been under the spell of her dancing, Shrimata Shanta Rao lays the mantle of her art aside and comes forward, bowing modestly with joined hands, to acknowledge the applause. This is the first glimpse we catch of the radiantly beautiful woman who has attained such complete identification with her art as almost to cease to exist as a human personality while she dances. Only once or twice during her portrayal of a wilful maiden being rebuked by her mother—"O young maid . . . you will surely disgrace your

Mother's name, you wide-eyed one!"—has she seemed slightly conscious of her audience. At all other times, both in Bharata Natya and Kathakali, her absorption is such that she seems actually to grow in physical stature as one watches. Her musicality, her lightning speed, her mastery of complex rhythm (rivaling that of her accomplished singer and drummer) and the beauty and expressiveness of her hands, are things to be marvelled at. For this unique treat of this recital, lovers of Indian dancing were indebted to the Asian Music Circle, who presented it.

Marshal Pibul in London

Behind a barrage of flashlights and whirring cine cameras the Prime Minister of Thailand sat calmly answering questions in soft-spoken English. At his elbow stood a young knowledgeable and smiling adviser. The scene: a press reception at the Thai Embassy in Kensington, last month.

Marshal Pibul Songgram looked remarkably fresh and fit, showing no traces of his earlier active life, and he faced the rattle of journalists' questions with the sort of unflinching courage that has brought him to the top of Siamese political life after several coups d'état. He talked with enthusiasm of Thailand's internal situation, saying the people were happy and had a surplus of food.

"You must be unique," someone said. The P.M. laughed. "Yes we are," he replied disingenuously. He admitted that the Free Thai Movement was something tangible in the north, but was confident that his people were untouched by the appeal of it. He magnanimously called Pridi (his former political rival, now in Peking, who is said to be the rallying figure of the Free Thai Movement) "my old friend," saying that when they were young men they studied together in Paris.

The Prime Minister smiled a lot, sat eagerly on the edge of his chair, paid tributes to the United States, talked with pride about his tank-manned police force, and frequently mentioned "We of the free world." Finally he told, to the amusement of everyone, his own story of when he was captured by the Siamese Navy during a political upheaval in Bangkok and of how he escaped and swam to freedom. He was very modest, and no one felt they could do anything but like Marshal Pibul—he was so benignant.

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Shell-Mex and BP Ltd. have produced a most comprehensive range of booklets designed to help the motorist at home and abroad. Although the emphasis is primarily to travel in European countries, nevertheless several booklets deal with all aspects of touring in near Eastern and Eastern countries, the latter including Ceylon, India and Pakistan. Each booklet discusses entry and passport formalities, road and driving information, supplies of oil and petrol, repair facilities, hotel accommodation, food, shopping, export and import regulations and a compendium of general information, such as notable events, useful addresses and so on. (All these booklets are free and can be obtained from Shell-Mex House, Strand, London, WC2.)

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FROM ALL QUARTERS

Japan Refuses to Store Atom Bombs

Mr. Hatoyama said last month that if the United States asked to store atom bombs in Japan the Japanese Government would reject the request. The Japanese Prime Minister made the statement before the Lower House Budget Committee.

UNESCO Travelling Exhibit of Chinese Art

A Unesco travelling exhibition, "Two Thousand Years of Chinese Painting," was inaugurated recently in a Paris museum by the French Minister of Education. The exhibition consists of colour reproductions illustrating the main periods of Chinese painting, perhaps one of the least-known art forms in the world.

The works shown are divided into three main groups: ancient painting associated with the Great Han dynasty, and continuing until the 7th Century A.D.; mediaeval painting produced under the T'ang and Sung dynasties and running into the 14th Century; and modern painting, bearing the stamp of the Ming and Ch'ing dynasties. Examples of the earlier periods are rare, due partly to the fragility of the material used, but the selection chosen for the exhibition gives a fair picture of the different periods in Chinese painting.

Twenty sets of the exhibit prepared by Unesco will soon be starting on a world tour of the Organization's member states.

Rival Monks in Seoul Clash

Several Buddhist monks were injured in a 30-minute fist fight between rival sects in an ancient temple in Seoul recently.

Married monks marched against 200 celibate monks and nuns who were conducting a passive strike against them, and attempted to eject the celibates.

Some 200 policemen, summoned to break up the fight, arrested 50 married monks and chased the other invaders away.

Three celibates were critically injured—one when he was thrown off the temple porch.

The celibate monks were sitting on the floor in silent meditation when the invaders arrived, and continued their meditations after the fight was broken up. The celibates had been sitting for two days in protest against Buddhist monks who marry.

The Republic of Korea government, on an order from President Syngman Rhee, ordered married monks to leave their temples in May. It was stated that all Buddhist clergy should live celibate lives, and that the custom of marrying was introduced into Korea by Japanese and violates the tenets of Buddhism.

An Indian Neo-Realistic Film in Italy

Do Bigha Zamin ("Two acres of land"), Bimal Roy's film on the life of an Indian peasant who has migrated to a big city to make sufficient money in order to free his piece of land from a mortgage, and prevent it from being sold, is having only a quiet success in Italy. The fundamental neo-realism of Bimal Roy's work has taken away the fascination of the East. The modern East, painted in colours of film neo-realism, presents a squalid and monotonous picture—and, to the Italian public, very little different from things they see every day. Neo-realism itself is no novelty for them, and all critics have been proud to find the influence of the Italian school in this Asian film. The majority of criticisms have been favourable, though of course they all have found that Bimal Roy has not been neo-realistic enough. Leftist critics have laid stress on this last point—

though they have admitted that one had to allow for Asian taste, while the dramatic social background has clearly upset the Rightist ones. They all agree on praising the warm touch of humanity pervading it, recognising the subduing effect of Indian taste on the merciless neo-realism of the Italian school.

It is perhaps this last element which permitted *Do Bigha Zamin* to go on from large cinemas of three main cities—Rome, Milan and Genoa—to smaller ones. It was first performed in Rome on February 24 and it is still showing in cinemas in the suburban districts. Judging by the comments of the man-in-the-street, Italian audiences found that the film has a well-developed plot, and a progressive technique. The social background is familiar to many parts of Italy where the standard of life is similar to that of the Indian peasant—if not the same. The poverty, the struggle with petty local tyrants, the frantic efforts to maintain personal independence—all these things the Italian public knows and understands.

Trial of Mitaka Case Urged

The Japanese Supreme Court has been asked by the public to reopen the trial of the Mitaka case, a frame-up against Japanese railway workers in 1949. Among the sponsors of the appeal are the Mayor of Mitaka at the time of the incident, the present Mayor, the Chairman of the City Council and other Japanese notables.

The appeal pointed out that the court passed a death sentence of the victim, Keisuke Takeuchi, at the second trial without investigating the facts which proved the victim's innocence. The Supreme Court was asked to reopen the case for exhaustive examination and a just verdict.

The case arose out of the strike of Japanese railway workers against dismissal, and allegedly was connected with a deliberately created train "accident" which caused a number of casualties. The defendant, illegally sentenced to life imprisonment at the first trial, was given a death sentence at the second trial in 1951.

In the past three to four years, however, the Supreme Court, finding it hard to reject the defendant's appeal or to uphold the second verdict, has been delaying the reopening of the trial.

India Bans Horror Comics

The Government of India have with immediate effect banned import into India of horror publications. Commonly known as horror comics, these publications portray commission of offences, acts of violence or cruelty, incidents of repulsive or horrible nature or glorify vice in such way as would tend to corrupt youth in general.

Prohibition in Ceylon

The Ceylon Government has appointed a five-man Commission to recommend administrative and legislative measures to enforce prohibition in the island. The Commission has been appointed at the request of Mr. Dudley Senanayake, former Prime Minister, who has been carrying on a sustained campaign against drinking and gambling. His aim is to rid the country of these "vices" before May next year, when Buddhists will be celebrating the 2,500th anniversary of the death of Lord Buddha. But Mr. Senanayake himself has refused to serve on the Commission so that he might be free to hold propaganda meetings throughout the island.



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BOOKS on the E

South-East Asia Between Two Worlds by TIBOR MENDE (*Turnstile Press*, 21s.)

Mr. Mende, in this book, is between the two worlds of reportage and analysis. Both are interesting in their own ways, but they do not strike a very compatible balance. Those readers who will be absorbed by the first three parts in which the author give a journalist's account of his travels, are likely to become impatient of the dissection of South-East Asia's troubles in part four. Those who, like myself, are gluttons for analytical interpretation of political and nationalistic trends in the area may get weary of plodding from place to place, and personality to personality, and get on quickly to the meaning of it all. But one gets a lot for a guinea, and much can be learnt from the author's perspicacious reporting and shrewd grasp of what is at stake in South-East Asia.

The two worlds of the title are, surprisingly enough, the Indian and the Chinese. The former representing "planning by persuasion," and the latter, "planning by force." For countries in South-East Asia the future does not hold a choice between Communism on the Russian pattern and democratic Liberalism, on the western model, "because the West's way of life, problems and solutions, do not correspond to the realities of their existence." The western world, the author argues, has so far failed to recognise the choice confronting South-East Asia, and western policies in the area at present are disastrously ill-conceived. Mr. Mende thinks, and I am sure he is right, that the West suffers from the "hypnotic fascination of mere anti-Communism," and this leads the West to react to what the Russians and the Chinese are doing "rather than to build positive programmes of our own."

The peoples and leaders of the South-East Asian countries are not captivated by the appeal of western style democratic elections, and such a system is more alien to their traditional social structure than authoritarian rule. A pre-condition of western (particularly American) aid to Asian countries is that they should recognise the virtue of the parliamentary system and free enterprise economy. This means in practice that the encouraging post-war phenomenon of revolutionary fervour is replaced by electoral contests which, because they are nearly always corrupt, bring parasitic ruling cliques to the fore who flourish on western aid and perpetuate social inequality to the grave detriment of planning and reform. Often ruling cliques are established without, or before, elections because a certain section of the community derives benefit and power by being the ones through whom western free enterprise aid is channelled.

To show that this analysis is just about right, Tibor Mende takes us on a journey through three countries—Indonesia, Burma and Pakistan—and presents them in detail from his own experience. In the first he found the struggle for independent survival critical, and a growing disillusionment about the attitude of the West. The position of Burma he thinks more encouraging, with progress on every front and a "strong Government with sufficient stability to face the hard problems of the post-war period." But even there the question of economic viability is vital, and money without conditions attached is almost impossible to come by. In Pakistan the author found a crying need for social reform, and a necessity for breaking the "arid circle of selfish and corrupt leaders."

The United States, says Mr. Mende, has spent gigantic sums in Asian countries "in the bold attempt to ease the social problems of those countries with the help of the free enterprise

FAR EAST

system. This method has not led in a single case to a more-just distribution of the national income or to a lessening of the appeal of revolutionary extremism. In all cases . . . it has led to enormous profits for a small minority, to wider corruption, (and) to deepening resentment on the part of the dispossessed."

South-East Asia is in a state of social ferment and at the present time the only movement offering a universal solution to the needs of the countries is Communism. If the West does not want to see South-East Asia pattern itself on China it must, says the author, aid and abet the revolutionary trend by facilitating social reform, helping the peoples to gain real independence, and providing them with a sense of purpose. Financial aid must not be given only on the condition that it be handled by a privileged few. The West still has the chance "to help in the planning of a revolution which, if it takes place without our participation, will be directed against us."

J. W. T. COOPER

Ando Shoeki and the Anatomy of Japanese Feudalism by E. H. NORMAN (*Tokyo: Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Japan, Third Series, Vol. 2*)

We have here a very complete picture of the country doctor turned philosopher—and, according to Mr. Norman, the only man of his day to raise his voice in protest against the stagnating feudal regime under which he was forced to live. The influence of medical training and thinking is very clear in Shoeki's method, and we are treated to some interesting digressions on, among other topics, Japanese medicine. There is a full discussion of Shoeki's peculiar style and vocabulary, although perhaps the problem of the authenticity of the existing manuscripts could have been treated in more detail.

Many of Shoeki's ideas and desired reforms are remarkably ahead of the thought of his times. The author has no difficulty in reading theories of geographical determinism into Shoeki's thinking; one of the proposed reforms was the abolition of the convention of the go-between. More startling still are the proposals for sex equality, and for doing away with the warrior class. Shoeki's misconceptions about Holland, and the influence of the west (almost exclusively Holland) on his thought make interesting reading; but instead of the lengthy, and at times somewhat laboured comparisons with Lucretius, Chuang-tzu, Quesnay, and Winstanley, it might have been more useful to concentrate more on the second part of the title, and to tell us in more detail of the nature of the regime against which Shoeki wrote.

A Supplementary Volume contains the text of the passages quoted in the main volume, and there is also a copious largesse of characters in the latter. It was the Chi, and not the Li family which Confucius served—a rather glaring lapse. There is an almost incredible spate of typographical errors, which is quite curiously dispersed; the proof reader appears to have dozed for about twenty pages in each hundred.

G.B.

Indian Village by S. C. DUBE (*Routledge and Kegan Paul, 25s.*)

Although this detailed study of Indian village life is primarily for the sociologist, those who are interested in the day to day life of an Indian peasant and the ramifications of the caste system as it affects the individual villager will find it readable and with a great deal more to it than the rather dry bones of collated research.

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INTERNATIONAL SOCIAL SCIENCE BULLETIN



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MATHEMATICS AND THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

Methods and Results — Research Centres

Contributors to this issue: Claude Lévi-Strauss, B. de Finetti, C. Cherry, L. Festinger, A. Tustin, R. C. Booton, Jr., G. Tintner, P. Thionet, E. Sibley.

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The survey was carried out by a team of research students under the direction of the author, and the village chosen is a fairly large one some 25 miles from Hyderabad. It has many features in common with similar villages in the rest of India and many of the conclusions drawn after reading this survey could no doubt be applied with some justification to other villages also.

The villagers are predominantly Hindu and the whole pattern of life is thus regulated by a complicated social structure based on caste. Even in the family, similar strictures apply and are accepted with apparent equanimity. But, says Dr. Dube, when, as will undoubtedly happen, this pattern is broken up in order to be re-formed into something like equality, who can prophesy just how much discord and strife such an upheaval will bring? The Indian village, in spite of rapidly expanding industrialisation, is still the foundation on which India's economy rests, and the need for improvement in the lot of the hard working yet impoverished villager has been recognized by the implementation of India's five year plan for rural areas. But the Indian peasant, like peasants everywhere, is somewhat wary of change until he sees that it is in his interests to adopt some new method. Also within the framework of rigid caste laws, objections may arise to the introduction of new practices, new laws or simply to the unorthodox as opposed to the old and tried. The approach to the villager is therefore of vital importance if plans for rural uplift are to be something more than plans. His co-operation has to be enlisted from the start—without it all reforms and betterments remain little more than orders vaguely imposed, instead of starting from the ground and working up. The difficulties involved are countless, but the basis is there: an Indian village is after all, loosely speaking, a co-operative in itself. But more than zeal and scientific knowledge is required—an understanding of the Indian villager, of his relationship to his surroundings and to the economic life of the village as a whole is needed. For this, Dr. Dube's study will be of great value since it is, as far as the reviewer knows, the first comprehensive and scientific study on the subject.

M.T.

Tribal Myths of Orissa by VERRIER ELWIN (Oxford University Press, 35s.)

This compilation of nearly a thousand stories collected in the tribal areas of Orissa is the result of the most painstaking field work by Dr. Verrier Elwin, whose researches into the customs and lore of Indian tribes are well known. The present volume can be read as a supplement to the earlier *Myths of Middle India* and the principle has been to collect and record as much material as possible, without giving detailed notes and comment which, Dr. Elwin says, he can leave to others, or to his old age. Judging by the enormous amount of material which he has here collected, and the energy which this has entailed, this time must still be happily, far off.

Dr. Elwin's method of direct translation—"on the spot"—as they were narrated or translated to him—is a most commendable one. He has avoided the temptation to elaborate or refurbish in order to make the stories more attractive to the reader, but has kept to the rather laconic and matter-of-fact style of the original narrators. The tribesmen of Orissa, on the whole, are not good story-tellers; they lack the wit, the humour and the poetry of many other tribes such as the Gadabas of Central India. The narrators encountered by Dr. Elwin were mostly elderly men of some position in village life—shamans, headmen or priests and the most interesting factor is that the myths were never in any sense the property of the narrator, but were held in common, so to speak, by the whole village. In most

cases, the myths were told by a group of persons, one taking up the thread as the other left off. This is a reflection of the strength of communal life in tribal Orissa where outstanding personalities are rather rarely encountered.

The myths are conveniently divided into categories—food, the animal world, man and so on, with appropriate sub-divisions, making for easy reference and comparison. The sources are given at the beginning of each story. There is a basic similarity among the Orissa tribes and this is revealed by their mythology. The basic preoccupations vary however, from tribe to tribe. An obsession with sickness and death is uppermost in the stories told by the Saoras—the Konds still think nostalgically of human sacrifice, while the love of dancing is apparent in the Gadaba and Jhoria tales. But as can be seen from the numerous sections, an explanation has been found for almost every form of life, for every physical process, for creation, for death and for the soul, dreams and religion although on the whole physical subjects preponderate. Much of the imagery used invokes some of the paintings of Hieronymus Bosch—physical organs dwarfing human beings by comparison—and even in many explanations for non-human activities, the human element is often involved without apparent logical reason.

The collection gives even a non-specialist reader an amazing insight into the lives and customs of the Orissa tribes and the specialist will find it an invaluable source of reference. We owe Verrier Elwin a great debt for his patience, industry and, last but not least for his warm sympathy for the people whose interests he has so much taken to heart.

S. N. GUPTA

Indian Cooking by SAVITRI CHOWDHARY (*Andre Deutsch*, 10s. 6d.)

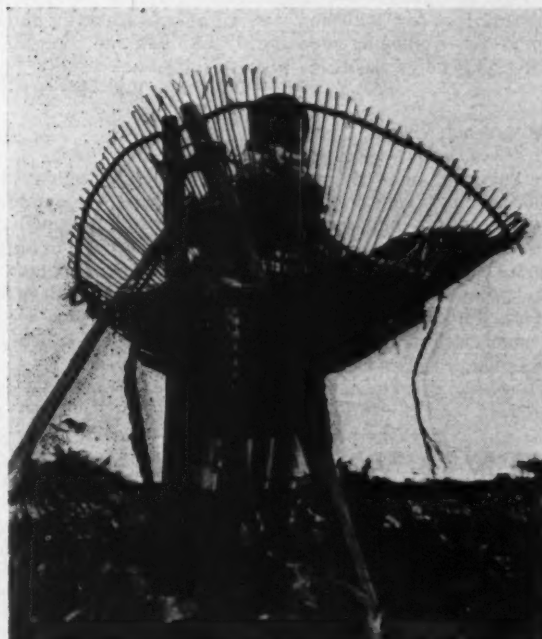
A good introduction to basic Indian cooking. The author

has lived for many years in England and so knows how to adapt and modify where necessary to suit different tastes and circumstances. The basic ingredients, however, are quite easily obtainable and the description of the actual routine to be followed in making the many curried dishes, sweetmeats and the indispensable *chappatties* and *parathas* are easy to follow. As Mrs. Chowdhary is a Punjabi, naturally she favours the cuisine of her birthplace, and as she modestly points out, the range of Indian cooking is so vast that she can do no more than skim the surface. But non-Indian readers who have a taste for real curries will find that with this book at their elbow an almost authentic Indian meal can be produced. One criticism—I do not think that curried rabbit will find favour with other than English readers!

S. N. GUPTA

Rehabilitation and Development of Agriculture, Forestry, and Fisheries in South Korea (*Columbia University Press. London: Geoffrey Cumberlege 70s.*)

Agriculture forms the basis of South Korea's economy. Nearly 60 per cent of the population live on farms, and a large proportion of the remainder are engaged in work connected with agricultural products. Fisheries and forestry are an essential part of the overall programme for the rehabilitation of the Southern Korean economy. The group of experts who were sent in 1952 to South Korea by the Food and Agricultural



Gathering cabbage in Korea (UNKRA picture)

Organisation spent, in the words of the Report, "400 man-days" on field trips throughout the provinces to enable them to get a picture of what was required to increase agricultural production and to develop attendant industries. The Report gives the findings and recommendations of the experts in detail, and deals with rural education, improved seeds, marketing methods, processing and the place of co-operatives in rural economy. Specimen budgets are included and tables giving food production both actual and potential. For those who will

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be responsible for carrying out these recommendations, this Report will certainly give a clear picture of the difficulties and the possibilities which confront them.

A.R.

Tibetan Journey by GEORGE N. PATTERSON (*Faber and Faber, 15s.*)

This is quite a remarkable story. The author was a medical missionary in Tibet when the entry of the Chinese made it imperative that he should leave his companion and make the trip to India to lay in new stores of medicine and other supplies before the rivers flooded. He followed an almost unknown route across the high mountains never before travelled by a European traveller. Knowing the Tibetans well, able to make contact with one local dignitary after another as he made his way along, he still found plenty of excitement in the trip and plenty of fun, with even the opportunity of romance which, to the disappointment of his Tibetan companion, he disdained to take. We have a very good account of the different peoples through whose country he travelled, all just Tibetans to the outsider, but with their own distinct divisions and customs. Having long since got used to their lack of hygiene and, in a Western sense, of conventional morals, he was able to find a great deal of warm human feeling, a keen sense of humour and a faculty for finding happiness under the difficulties of life that might appal foreigners.

The enjoyment to be found in reading this diary is tempered by regret that Mr. Patterson was not able to make the return trip as the Communists advanced and took his companion prisoner before he was ready to leave India.

TAN AH-TAH

Bibliographia Asiatica

(*Frankenau/Hessen, W. Germany*)

Published quarterly, this index of material dealing with Asian affairs—political, cultural and economic—is extracted from periodicals published in many languages. It is perhaps the most comprehensive bibliography of its kind, both in range, topicality and selection. Its fellow publication *Asien Bibliographie* also appears every quarter and gives a complete list of all books published in German which deal with Asia, in many cases with a summary of the contents. Both bibliographies should be of great value to scholars and librarians.

REVIEW OF REVIEWS

The *Middle East Journal* (Spring number) carried an article by Richard Pipes of the Harvard Russian Research Centre, on the Muslims of Soviet Central Asia. He asserts that the crucial question in the future of this region is the degree to which the native population is succumbing to the process of Russification. If the Central Asian peoples are gradually losing their ethnic peculiarities then Soviet Central Asia may be expected in time to merge with the Russian core of the USSR. On the other hand, says Mr. Pipes, if they retain their ethnic and cultural complexion then Central Asia will continue to be set apart from the remainder of Soviet territories and to merit distinct political treatment. The primary sources of information for this essay consisted of the standard literature on Central Asia, both pre-revolutionary and Soviet, and of material collected in the course of interviews with Muslim migrants from the Soviet Union. The main criteria used in investigating the cultural tendencies of Central Asian Muslims were based on religion, customs, language, ethnic identity and the character and trends of native intelligentsia, and an attempt has been made in the article to determine the extent and nature of the changes which have occurred under Soviet rule. The survey is a

detailed one and brings out many interesting and little known sidelights.

Japan's trade with Asia in 1954 amounted to £796,800,000 of exports—but this was only 36 per cent of the pre-war level. The reasons for this diminution of trade are described in the May issue of the *Oriental Economist* and Japan's trade relations with Asian countries are analysed country by country, giving relevant facts and figures. India's trade with her neighbours in the economic field is dealt with in an article in a recent issue of *The Eastern Economist* in which it is stated that strangely enough India's trade has continued to follow the "traditional" path—heavily weighted with countries in the West such as the UK and USA. Taking into consideration the geographic proximity of the Middle Eastern countries, it is strange that this enormous potential market for Indian goods has not been developed. The article surveys the possibilities for increasing India's trade with this region and analyses some of the reasons for its slow growth.

The current issue of *Courier*, the bi-monthly magazine of Unesco, is a fascinating one. It is devoted to the art of puppetry in different countries of the world. Puppetry is said to be as old as civilisation itself and in the Far East especially, for many hundred of years it has been regarded as one of the highest forms of theatrical art. In Asia puppet drama remains to this day a true Peoples' Theatre, presenting folklore and legends in a manner understood by all. Unesco is using the puppet theatre at its educational centres in Mexico, Egypt and Thailand.

The popularity of puppetry however is showing a general decline in the east. Roshan Dhunjibhoy of Pakistan, surveying its history and its present state in Asian countries, observes that in the face of the ever-increasing advance of the travelling cinema and radio, puppet theatres are fast disappearing. She adds that renaissance is needed so that this link with the past might not be lost entirely, and puppetry might continue to serve the ordinary people.

T. S. Satyan contributes an illustrated article on puppetry in India, where puppet theatres traditionally present tales from history and Hindu mythology. There is also a pictorial feature on the Bunraku, which is Japan's unique form of puppetry.

People's China of May 1 carries a report on the plan to simplify the Chinese script. Last January the Committee for Reforming the Chinese Written Language, after two years' study of the question, issued a draft plan which then aroused enormous interest all over China. Simplification of the characters is only the first step. The ultimate aim is to change the script into the phonetic system. This is expected to make easier the teaching and learning of the language. The present plan introduces 798 simplified characters, which are mainly those that have been in common use among the ordinary people, in place of the complicated "regular" characters of literature. Besides, some 400 variant forms of Chinese characters are to be discontinued. These groups of variants, all pronounced and meaning the same, are found needless and an unnecessary burden on the learner. It has been proposed therefore that only the simplest form of each character should be retained and the rest discarded. The plan also makes suggestions for a simpler form of handwriting based on the earlier Chinese cursive hand.

Atlantis, the illustrated monthly from Zurich publishes in its June issue some remarkable photographs of Indo-Chinese peasant life taken by the late Werner Bischof. It also carries an attractively illustrated article on the Sigiriya frescoes in Ceylon.

For serious students of Islamic history and culture, the April issue of the *Islamic Quarterly* provides much valuable material. R. C. Varma gives a detailed survey of the background to the formation of the three Muslim empires in Asia—Safavi in Persia, Mughal in India and Uzbek in Transoxiana—in the sixteenth century.

Thought and Word, an Anglo-Thai journal published monthly from Bangkok is a non-political magazine devoted to the culture of South-East Asia and contributions include articles on art and education, poems and photographs. The April issue has a special section on Burma.

BRITAIN AND VIET NAM—(continued from p. 13)

Because the regime of Ngo Dinh Diem in the south is aware of this, they are taking refuge in the fact that they are not legally bound by the Geneva agreement, and are becoming attached to the idea of not holding elections at all. The British Government, however, was one of the sponsors of the Geneva meeting, and Sir Anthony Eden was a co-chairman; it is therefore not possible for Britain to stand aloof while the terms of the agreement are undermined.

The Communists in the north agreed to call off the fighting "on the promise of free elections." If they do not take place it is very likely that Ho Chi Minh will consider the Geneva agreement nullified and push his powerful armies across the 17th Parallel. As this dividing line is guaranteed by the SEATO treaty what, asked Mr. Mayhew, would then be the position of the British Government. Do we help in resisting the attack, and if so with what moral justification?

For Britain to press for free elections in Viet Nam would appear almost as a heresy in American eyes, since it means in effect that we are helping Communism to gain ground in Asia without a fight. "If, however, the majority of these people will vote Communist anyhow," said Mr. Mayhew, "for how long can we support regimes which they do not support—in fact, impose on them regimes in

a partitioned country in violation of the Geneva Agreement?" This is the hub of the issue. The United States has shown great aptitude for propping up governments in which indigenous peoples have no confidence, and in consequence has engendered a good deal of ill-will among the people of Asia.

It is not defeatist or anything else to believe what is certainly true, that only a miracle can stop Communism from gaining support in South Viet Nam. After the agreement in Geneva the south had every opportunity to impress the people there with the merits of a democratic system which would work to the benefit of everyone. The Diem Government, aided and abetted by the United States, has made a squalid mess of it. If they have achieved anything at all, it is to have confirmed the ordinary people in their resolve to vote for the Viet Minh.

The British Government, through the Minister of State for Foreign Affairs, gave the assurance that it will use all its influence to get the Saigon Government to enter into negotiation with the north with a view to establishing a commission to supervise the elections next year. It will not be easy, and Britain must be prepared not only to give strong verbal support to the Geneva agreement now, but to make it clear from the start that if the agreement is torn up, by the south not agreeing to elections, Britain will not be bound by the Manila Treaty to take part in any further fighting in Indo-China.

THE LIU-HSUEH MOVEMENT

China's Returned Students and their Influence

By Lee Shu-Ching (Washington University, St. Louis, USA)

NO account of the recent social changes which led to the rise of Communism in China could leave out the influence of the returned students. This movement to study abroad, known in Chinese as *liu-hsueh*, began in 1872 and ended in 1948, a period of three-quarters of a century. Since the latter year, there have been students who managed, in one way or other, to go to Europe or America for further education, but the number is negligible as compared with the great movement in the past. Perhaps the time is now appropriate to make an appraisal of its possible effects on the traditional society of China.

Yung Wing and the Chinese Educational Mission

This programme of the Chinese Educational Mission to study in the United States was initiated by Yung Wing, a Yale University graduate. Yung, born in 1828 in a village near Macao, the Portuguese colony, was educated in a missionary school under the Rev. S. R. Brown. In spite of his mother's reluctance, he accompanied Rev. Brown across the Pacific and studied at Yale for ten years. When he returned to China, he was convinced of the worth of American education and championed with vigour the sending of Chinese boys to study in the United States.

Through his association with some influential dignitaries in the Manchu Government, such as Viceroy Tseng Kuo-fan and Admiral Ting Yu-chang, a plan was finally approved. This plan called for the sending of 120 young boys at the expense of the Government to study in the United States. Two commissioners were to be appointed in charge of the students' affairs

abroad, one taking care of accommodation and school work and the other keeping up their lessons in Chinese classics. Chin Lan-pin, a member of the Hanlin Academy, was assigned to do the work of the latter and Yung Wing, the former.

It must be remembered that the Chinese people at this time were extremely unwilling to let their sons go to a faraway land, an event which is comparable with the traditional penalty of banishment. In addition to their deep-seated conservatism and family attachment, they could find little encouragement in the many rumours which were still in circulation. It was rumoured, for instance, that when a Chinese boy arrived at America, the barbarian natives would seize him and force him to go through an operation so that his own skin would be removed and the skin of some wild beast grafted on his bleeding body. Then he would be taken on exhibition as a man-beast all over the country. Yung Wing had to combat all these obstacles and finally, to his great satisfaction, the first group, thirty of the 120 young boys, sailed for America in 1872, a year which marked the opening of a new era in China. The last detachment reached the New Continent in 1875.

On arrival, these boys, averaging about twelve years old, were immediately lodged in American homes in Connecticut and later attended schools and colleges. While in the United States, they were expected to maintain Chinese ideas and customs and wore their queues. Yung's Yale education and Chins Confucian background made, from the very beginning, a close co-operation between the two commissioners impossible and later development only aggravated their incompatibility. Yung

has this to say in his autobiography (*My Life in China and America*, New York, Henry Holt, 1909) :

The gradual but marked transformation of the students in their behaviour and conduct as they grew in knowledge and stature under New England influence, culture and environment, produced a contrast to their behaviour and conduct when they first set foot in New England that might well be strange and repugnant to the ideas and senses of a man like Chin Lan-pin, who all his life had been accustomed to seeing the springs of life, energy and independence, candour, ingenuity and open-heartedness all covered up and concealed, and in a great measure smothered and never allowed their full play. Now in New England the heavy weight of repression and suppression was lifted from the minds of these young students ; they exulted in their freedom and leaped for joy.

As their discord widened, both Chin and Yung were assigned, by Peking, new jobs elsewhere and the directorship of the Mission was passed to a man of Confucian tradition, Wu Tse-tung. Conservative as he was, it was not long before Wu noted with alarm the degree of the young boys' Americanisation. They wanted, for instance, to play baseball at leisure hours instead of reciting Confucian Classics, made love to American girls, assumed the swaggering and unreserved manners of college boys ; in short, they had gone too far in adopting American ways. To him, their further education in America would only do more harm to their mother country. A later investigation conducted by another mandarin official sustained his apprehension.

About this time, in 1877-78, America was impregnated with a tide of anti-Chinese sentiments, and the State Department was not slow in being affected by current events. Despite the Seward-Burlingame Treaty of 1868, applications of Chinese students for admission to the military academies at West Point and Annapolis were turned down in "curt and disdainful" terms which helped not only to discredit Yung Wing as associate Commissioner, but also to precipitate the discontinuation of the Educational Mission. In 1881, the students were abruptly summoned to return home and the Mission was dissolved.

According to the account of Yung Shang-him, one member of this group, these pioneer American-educated students returned home to face suspicion and disgrace. Immediately after disembarkation at Shanghai, they were marched as prisoners under a guard of soldiers into a dilapidated school building and provided with bedding and food which was "hardly fit for a pig." They were not allowed to visit friends or relations. In those days, no Chinese would venture into public view in foreign dress (one might be called "foreign devil" for even walking in a foreign manner), and the students were left penniless and unable to make the necessary change of clothing. Finally, when the assignment of work came, to their great dismay, each was paid a flat, even salary of four taels of silver (£1 17s.) a month, the pay of an office page. "It is a subject," the writer testified, "we avoid among ourselves as being too painful to recall. When we do speak of the ups and downs and the humble pie we had to swallow, it is never before a third party."

As to the influence of these early American-trained students on China, it was apparently of negligible significance. Individually, however, some had achieved reputation of nationwide standing. Jame Tien-yu, known as the "father of Chinese railways," was the Chinese engineer who built the Peking-Suiyuan Railway through very difficult terrain, and another of the same group, Tong Hsiao-yi, later became a premier of the Republic.

European Education and Chinese Students

Although it is known that two Chinese students came to France as early as the last quarter of the eighteenth century and

helped the French economist, Turgot, to make use of Chinese thought in his writing, the main stream of Chinese students reached Europe towards the end of the nineteenth century.

Since the "Opium War" of 1839-42, repeated military defeats and political humiliations inflicted by western powers upon China had awakened many far-sighted scholars and mandarins of the Manchu Court to China's backwardness in industrial development and vulnerability in national defence. Though they saw nothing wrong in Confucian ethics and traditional systems, they realised, for the first time in Chinese history, the urgent need for acquiring the knowledge of making use of western techniques. Through their suggestions and appeals, Chinese students were finally despatched to Europe, mainly England, France, Belgium and Germany.

The first group of students, no more than five or six in number, went in 1875 to France for the study of navigation and shipbuilding. They were selected from the arsenals located at Foochow, the capital of Fukien province. The year after, twenty-four more students from the same ammunition works sailed for both France and England for the same purposes. These two groups of students were specifically required to gain empirical knowledge in factories and warships in addition to their college education. When on board a warship, they were, according to the regulations, permitted to change to French or British uniforms, but were not allowed to cut off their queues. They were also ordered to keep up their studies in Confucian classics and Chinese history, on which subjects a test was given by a Chinese director once every three months. There had been some later minor additions to this group, but the total number was probably no more than a hundred students. In 1882, all of them were called back home on account of the Manchu regime's phobia concerning "foreign devils." Because of the location of the arsenals, these students, mainly recruited from Fukien, later became naval engineers and admirals who, in turn, recruited more of their fellow provincials to fill the lesser posts. This factor accounts for the predominantly large number of Fukienese in the Chinese navy.

During the following twenty years, China suffered two more ignominious and disastrous defeats, one in 1895 at the hands of the small insular nation of Japan and the other by the joint forces of eight powers. The latter event, known in history as the Boxer Uprising actually presaged the downfall of the once powerful Ch'ing dynasty. As one of several last minute measures, the Manchu Court and its viceroys then revived the plan of sending students to Europe. It soon developed into a nationwide movement. In connection with this, two events seem to be of special significance. The first one was the selection of Belgium as a country to which China sent the largest number of students. The reasons for this were : (a) Belgium as an industrial nation could provide Chinese students with educational facilities equal to other European powers ; (b) student expenses there were comparatively low, and (c) on account of its size, Belgium could not be much of a threat to China from an imperialist point of view. Just how many young boys, mainly "teen-agers," were actually sent to Europe under this plan at this time and later is still not known. One thing stands out markedly, and that is the major assignments of these students were to study railway-engineering, mining, and related sciences ; the later development of China's railway lines and mining enterprises indicates that in the higher level of administration Belgian-trained personnel outnumbered any other group. Among them, Dr. Wong Wen-hao, an outstanding geologist and once a premier of the Nationalist regime, was the recognised leader.

The other event was the so-called Self-Support-Labour-Study Movement for going to France. An association bearing this name was first organised in 1914. During and after World War I, a prolonged shortage of man-power in France due to war losses had prompted that country to import foreign labour. With the passage paid by the French Government, several hundred young Chinese students sailed yearly for France, to study and at the same time be self-supporting. The total number reached as many as 1,700 in 1921. The Chinese University of Lyons was established in that year for the purpose of educating Chinese students in France. Very soon the French economy was badly hit by the post-war depression which deprived many Chinese students of their jobs. Stranded in a foreign land, the plight of these young students must have been

desperate, and many of them turned to Communism, among whom Chou En-lai was the leader. By 1925, the number of students was reduced to no more than 400 or 500.

Another point of interest concerning these European-educated students, is the fact that only a relatively small number went to Germany; nine out of ten of them were engaged in the study of military sciences. A very small number studied in the Soviet Union, nearly all of them in 1923-26 under the sponsorship of the Nationalist-Communist coalition Government at Canton. From this small group came some of the brilliant Red military generals of today as well as Chiang Kai-shek, who studied in a military academy at Moscow for eight months in 1923-24.

(to be continued)

THE BUILDER OF THE GREAT WALL

By James H. Jacques

THE Tsin Dynasty, the reigns of which cover the period 249-210 B.C., is the shortest lived of all the great dynasties of China. Of its three rulers, the first and the last are completely overshadowed by the gigantic figure of the second, Tsin-shih-hwang-ti.

The circumstances of his birth are mysterious. Neither in physical appearance, nor apparently, in temperament, did he conform to the usual Chinese type. Attempts have even been made to claim for him blood relationship with Asoka, the great Mauryan emperor, whose dynasty held contemporary sway over the greater part of Northern India. By his support of Taoism and by his drastic action in the burning of the books, he incurred the undying animosity of the Confucian literati. In spite of all this, the very name of China—a corruption by the Western peoples of the name of the Tsin state and dynasty—remains as a memorial to his fame and to the importance of the work which he did.

The long period of feudal anarchy that filled the closing centuries of the Chou Dynasty ended finally in the firm establishment on the throne of the first Tsin Emperor, Chiang-siang-wang. This ruler chose as his chief minister of state a very remarkable man, Lu-pu-wei. Lu-pu-wei had been engaged in trade, and as a merchant he had travelled extensively. His main ambition, however, was to become famous as an author. He was so confident in his literary ability that he offered a reward of a thousand pieces of gold to anyone who could improve on his writings by

the amendment of a single word; and tradition goes on to say that his challenge met with no response. It would appear from this that his confidence was justified, and that he was a man of considerable ability and intellectual power.

Lu-pu-wei's political career was cut short by the discovery that he was engaged in an intrigue with the emperor's wife. He was banished from the presence; but apparently the emperor forgave his wife, for when her son was born shortly afterwards he adopted him and, dying when the boy was thirteen years of age, left him to fill the vacant throne. This child is he who eventually had himself proclaimed as Shih-hwang-ti, or First Emperor.

His life reveals itself as a story of titanic struggle and achievement. Whether his adoption of Taoism was due to honest conviction, to annoyance with the Confucian literati on account of their criticism of his behaviour, to a wish to break completely with the past, or to some ancestral or psychological affinity that predisposed him in favour of "the Way," we do not know. Once his mind was made up, he acted with the fanatical zeal of the genuine religious reformer. Alone, of the Confucian classics, the *Yi-king*, or *Book of Changes*, escaped the conflagration which was the result of his edict. All the rest, and all other books with the exception of those on agriculture, medicine and divination, were so utterly destroyed that the copies restored during the Confucian reaction under the early Han emperors have been regarded in modern times with suspicion. The theory has even



been advanced that they are all forgeries by the celebrated historian Sze-ma-t sien, and that, consequently, none of them can be dated earlier than the first century B.C.

Having disposed of the books, Shih-hwang-ti proceeded to deal with the literati. Four hundred and sixty of them were condemned to a cruel death; and when the emperor's son pleaded on their behalf, he was banished from the court. All those convicted of resisting the confiscation of their books were branded and sentenced to four years of forced labour on the Great Wall. Indirectly, the emperor's fanaticism contributed to the ruin of the dynasty; for his younger son, who stepped into the inheritance of the banished prince, proved to have too weak a character to maintain himself on the throne in the strenuous times in which he lived, and the line of the Tsin petered out in anarchy and confusion.

Apart from the possible loss of valuable material in the burning of the books, Shih-hwang-ti's attempts at religious innovation had little or no permanent effect on the course of Chinese history. After his death, the people returned to their reverence for Confucius, copies of the classics reappeared from the hiding places in which they had been carefully laid to save them from the destructive zeal of the Taoist emperor, the gaps were filled by drawing from the hidden resources of those who had treasured the words of the sage in their memories, and the spiritual life of China flowed again in its former bed. With the building of the Great Wall, however, Shih-hwang-ti changed the whole future course of human history.

Events which are still green in the memory of most of us have taught us the danger, in modern times, of a "wall complex." No doubt it is easy to overestimate the effectiveness of the Great Wall as a barrier against the Huns. We must remember, however, that Shih-hwang-ti's problem was not how to stop a modern mechanised army supported by dive bombers, but rather how to contain the innumerable hordes of savage horsemen that threatened to inundate China under a flood of barbarism from the steppes of Central Asia. The Romans were the supreme masters of military science in Europe; and the Roman reply to a similar threat in the West was the erection of similar frontier barriers where the boundaries of the Empire did not coincide with the line of the great rivers Rhine and Danube. Hadrian's wall from the Solway Firth to the North Sea, built before all the tribes to the south of it had been completely subdued, for over three hundred years held the wild Caledonian tribes confined within the northern part of the island of Britain.

The Great Wall of China extends for over one thousand three hundred miles from the Gulf of Liao-tung to the mountains of Kan-su. The Huns, as a protection against whom it was originally built, never succeeded in effecting a permanent lodgment on Chinese soil. The work of Tsin-sh-hwang-ti was taken up and completed by the early emperors of the succeeding Han Dynasty, who carried the war deep into the enemy's country. The Huns, defeated and disunited, wandered away to the west and finally disappeared from the stage of Chinese history. Their subsequent reappearance in Europe under the leadership of the great Attila is an event of primary importance in the history of the declining Roman Empire and of the infant states of modern Europe.

The vast Eurasian Steppe is one of those geographical regions that have produced a highly specialised type of man. Like the inhabitants of the sandy deserts of Hither Asia and North Africa, the steppe folk are nomads, leading a free wandering life in a world of almost illimitable space. While, however, the Arab depends mainly on the dromedary, the nomads of Central Asia have based their economy on the horse; and until

the advent of the internal combustion engine, the horse, as well as being man's most useful partner in peaceful work, was also his most terrible ally in war. The fierce, headlong charges of the nomadic horsemen added a new element of horror to the warfare of the time. The unexpectedness of their movements, made possible by their extreme mobility, added to the effect, and enabled them to terrorise and lay waste vast stretches of country. Not until they had learned from their enemies the art of cavalry warfare and could meet them in the field with their own weapons, did the Chinese gradually begin to gain the upper hand in the long struggle with the Huns. This evolution of Chinese military tactics took place behind the protecting barrier of Shih-hwang-ti's Great Wall, the construction of which thus marks the first stage in the train of events that finally brought the Huns into Europe, driving before them the Goths and other Germanic tribes, which the Romans had hitherto succeeded in keeping outside the frontiers of the Empire.

Nor did the process stop there. With the movement of the Huns away from the Chinese frontier as marked by the Great Wall, the tide of migration and conquest had set it strongly towards the west. Attila and his hordes were brought to bay and finally defeated by the combined forces of the Visigoths and Romans in the battle of Chalons in 451 A.D. A few years later Attila died, and the loose federation of tribes which had held together under his leadership gradually broke up and dispersed. The Huns, however, formed only the first of a series of tumultuous waves of nomadic horsemen which, starting near the Great Wall of Tsin-shih-hwang-ti and travelling across thousands of miles of the Eurasian Steppe, broke and spent themselves in Central and Eastern Europe. The Bulgars mingle with their Slavonic allies and subjects, and finally adopted a Slavonic tongue; but the Turkish, Hungarian and Finnish languages, all Central Asian in type and origin, remain today firmly established on European soil to remind us of the historic consequences of Tsin-shih-hwang-ti's great achievement.

The building of the Great Wall of China forestalled by two hundred years the establishment of the Roman frontier by the Emperor Augustus. While the Roman Empire was still in its infancy, the stresses had been set up and the movements started in the far east of Asia which, centuries later, were to overwhelm the empire of the Caesars under the catastrophic human avalanche of the *Volkerwanderung*, or great migration of peoples. While Hadrian was building his wall across the north of England, the Huns had already passed the Dzungarian Gate and were grazing their herds on the steppes between Lake Balkhash and the Aral Sea. Tsin-shih-hwang-ti had done his work well; the tribes were on the move towards the west; the menace had been turned aside from China, and the fate of the Roman Empire was sealed.

This is, of course, to take a simplified view of a very intricate tangle of events and tendencies. Three facts, however, stand out: the first really serious breach in the Roman defences was made by the Goths; the Goths were impelled towards the Roman frontier on the Danube by the impetuous onslaught of the Huns; and the Huns were there because, centuries previously, they had been defeated and turned aside from Cinah by the early Han emperors, carrying on the work begun by Tsin-shih-hwang-ti, the builder of the Great Wall.

Twice, in later times, China was ruled by dynasties that had their origin to the north of the Great Wall, but both invasions were aided and made possible by the internal weakness and dissensions of the Chinese. The Mongols, who founded the Yuan Dynasty in A.D. 1260, came into China in the wake of the Kin Tartars; and they had been invited in as allies by the Sung

emperor of the period. Again in 1643 A.D., on the death of the last Ming emperor, his general, Wu-san-kwei, called in the Manchus, whose dynasty lasted until 1912. Throughout the centuries, the Great Wall has continued to mark the dividing line between the Chinese and the peoples of the Steppe.

Tsin-shih-hwang-ti died in B.C. 210, and was interred in a magnificent tomb, which he had hollowed out of the side of a mountain. On the bronze floor was a map of the empire with rivers of quicksilver, and stars shone from the roof of the tomb.

REHABILITATION CENTRE FOR ASIAN DISABLED

By a Special Correspondent

SEVERAL international organisations have decided to co-operate in an imaginative scheme to establish a model rehabilitation centre in Indonesia which, it is hoped, will become a pilot for hundreds of similar centres to serve the urgent needs of Asia's millions of disabled people.

This is the first time that joint international action has been taken by the specialised agencies of the United Nations, the Colombo Plan powers and the World Veterans Federation, one of the leading non-governmental organisations accredited to the United Nations.

Solo, which in the 14th Century, was the seat of the great Hindu-Javanese state of Majapahit, has been selected as the centre for this new project. Its choice is a tribute to a remarkable Indonesian surgeon, Dr. Raden Soeharso, and his wife.

Together they have pioneered the difficult field of rehabilitation for disabled people in their own country. After eight years of determined effort they have triumphed over vast obstacles to establish what is probably one of the most remarkable rehabilitation centres in the world.

One of their main problems has been to break down local prejudices and customs affecting the disabled: a problem that exists in many parts of Asia, according to a recent UN survey of this problem.

Although in Europe and North America it is now widely recognised that a disabled person can be helped to live a useful and happy life, very little is being done to help the millions of handicapped people in Asia. This was recognised in a report prepared for the United Nations by Mr. Kurt Jansson in 1954 who found that: "In Indonesia and South-East Asia generally, customs and traditions have in the past prevented the handicapped from participating in useful life. They have, generally speaking, been hidden in the villages by their families and have not been given a chance to return to society."

This was one of the problems faced by Dr. and Mrs. Soeharso when they decided in 1946 to start the first rehabilitation centre in Indonesia. They made their headquarters in a disused garage in Solo. And with the help of a young engineer, Soeroto, they learned from catalogues and experiments how to make artificial limbs.

Lacking proper raw materials they were forced to use scrap aluminium from crashed planes to make new legs and arms for the disabled. According to Dr. Henry Kessler, who visited the Solo Centre on a UN mission in 1954, the improvised limbs were first-rate.

Dr. Soeharso, a graduate of Surabaya Medical School, served with the Indonesian Red Cross when Japan invaded his homeland. It was while doing this work that the idea of helping the country's wounded soldiers first took root. While amputating the limbs of men in the field he became obsessed by the thought of what the future held for them. And although many of his superiors felt that working with artificial limbs was not the business of a surgeon, he decided to devote himself to the development of a rehabilitation centre. There was plenty for him to do after fighting finally ended in 1948.

But so successful were his efforts that the UN specialist, Kurt Jansson, was able to say of the Soeharos' enterprise, six years later, that: "There is no case anywhere else that I know where the obstacles have been so great, and the perseverance and achievements

It was guarded by mechanical devices, so arranged as to shoot arrows at any unauthorised intruders. Over all was shed a soft light from enormous candles. The workmen who had made it were buried alive with the emperor's body in the tomb, and the entrance was carefully concealed under a grassy mound. But Tsin-shih-hwang-ti was not allowed to rest in peace. The tomb was plundered by the general Hsiang-yu, and shortly afterwards all that was left of it was consumed in a fire started accidentally by a shepherd looking for a lost sheep.

so striking in the establishment of pilot rehabilitation schemes by voluntary action, as the case of Dr. and Mrs. Soeharso."

In 1954 the Soeharos were awarded the Rehabilitation Prize of the World Veterans Federation for the year's most outstanding achievement in the field of rehabilitation.



The first two Asian trainees under the Colombo Plan, studying modern rehabilitation methods in the U.K. (left) Soeroto Reksopranoto, General Manager of the Indonesian Solo Centre (right) D.C. Sri Dillimuni, Manager of the Rehabilitation Centre at the Colombo General Hospital, Ceylon

When urged on by the World Veterans Federation the United Nations decided to enlist the help of all those who could contribute towards helping Asia's disabled people, it was natural that the Solo Centre should be chosen as the site for the project.

Dr. Soeharso now enjoys a measure of Government support. Apart from his surgical work and the limb-fitting centre, a clinic has been started by Mrs. Soeharso for crippled children. And handicapped civilians as well as veterans are now being catered for. The Centre has 300 beds and has 200 employees engaged in vocational training, surgical, therapeutic and prosthetic services. Last year it manufactured 375 artificial limbs. And already it has a waiting list of 10,000 patients. And it is estimated, moreover, that one-fifth of the Indonesian population are potential patients.

To promote the notable Solo experiment the following immediate steps have been agreed:

The World Veterans Federation is sending an orthopaedic surgeon and an orthopaedic nurse to Indonesia. The surgeon chosen for this mission is Dr. Douglas D. Toffelmier, a civilian orthopaedic consultant in the United States Naval Hospital, Oakland, and Associate Clinical Professor of Orthopaedic Surgery for the University of California Medical School. He is now on his way to take up his assignment.

The International Labour Organisation will provide a vocational training and placement expert to set up a training scheme, and the World Health Organisation has agreed to supervise the medical aspects of the programme.

ECONOMIC SECTION

FOREIGN BUSINESS IN JAPAN

By our Tokyo Correspondent

THE number of civilian foreigners living today in Japan amounts to about 600,000 out of which approximately 580,000 are Chinese and Koreans. Nationals of all other countries together residing in Japan are, therefore, not more than roughly 20,000 in a country with a population of 88 million. One would think that such a numerically irrelevant fraction of the population would not present any problems. As a matter of fact, outside the three or four large cities of Japan, the influence of foreigners is indeed negligible. But in the cities of Tokyo, Yokohama, Kobe and Osaka there is a growing feeling among the foreign business community that they are undesirable. They think that alleged or genuine acts of discrimination against them are the result of a primitive xenophobia. The first result of such a state of mind of the foreigners is, of course, the claim that Japan is "killing the goose which lays the golden eggs"—stressing the idea of the foreigners' value to the economy of Japan and, particularly, to the foreign trade of the country. This way of thinking stems, however, from a somewhat exaggerated sense of their own importance, and this evaluation is being repeated over and over again, quite possibly ad nauseam in the ears of the Japanese.

Actually, there is not much that Japanese traders could learn from foreigners. They are shrewd, versatile and resourceful in business themselves. When it comes to foreign (read mainly "American") investment in Japanese industries, prospective investors in most cases are facing an attitude of reluctance and aloofness on the Japanese side towards the idea of foreign participation. The 15 years' gap in industrial techniques is rapidly narrowing—the exhibits at the recent International Trade Fair in Tokyo gave ample and impressive evidence of that process. As a result, American investors are disturbed at what seems to them an unreasonable stubbornness to accept the benefits of foreign investment. Readers' letters to the editors of English language newspapers in Tokyo and resolutions of the American Chamber of Commerce in Japan leave no doubt that potential American investors looking for business opportunities in Japan are disappointed. A pettifogging bureaucracy whose efficiency is not always up to the standards of a modern American industrial enterprise adds to the irritation of American businessmen who are only too quickly liable to forget that American yardsticks are not used everywhere in the world. Perturbing, and sometimes allegedly discriminating tax regulations and practices, import restrictions and control on remittances abroad do the rest to

produce general dissatisfaction among the foreign business community in Japan.

A glance at the economic history of Japan since its modernisation in 1868 shows that the main stimulant of Japanese acceptance of western technology was the apprehension of foreign domination. Government initiative in industrial development aimed, first of all, at the establishment of basic industries and of military and naval power against the dangers of foreign colonisation. Up to the end of World War II Japan was successful in this respect. After the war, however, the rehabilitation of Japanese industries was made difficult not only by their 15 years' seclusion from technical progress in the rest of the world, but also by a lack of investment funds. Necessary investment capital could have been, to a certain extent, available from the United States. However, the fear still exists that American influence in the economy of Japan would result in control, domination and, perhaps, strangulation in cases of serious competition. Hence the permanent interventions of the American authorities in Tokyo with the Japanese government offices on behalf of American investors who find themselves faced with Japanese reluctance to approve of their projects. Hence also the increasing number of foreign, mainly American, business enterprises who find it unprofitable to maintain their offices in Japan and consider liquidation. Even a number of foreign correspondents have discussed with their headquarters in the United States and elsewhere the advisability of moving their Far Eastern offices to Hongkong from where they could cover Japan at less cost and more conveniently by occasional visits. Foreign firms have left Japan, finding Hongkong and other parts of Asia more attractive for their activities. Industries established by foreigners in Japan have been transferred to Hongkong and might as well compete from there in future with Japan in foreign markets.

All this poses the problem of balancing equal facilities for all with the protection of the national economy. Every country wishes to protect its own industries and business by controlling foreign influences. But at the same time, every country also wants to expand its own foreign trade relations. Since international trade is not a one-way road, Japan can, in the long run, hardly expect the treatment abroad of its own businessmen to differ from the one it is handing out to the foreign business community in Japan. The lack of restraint on foreign business in Japan which characterised the early part of the occupation has come to an end. The pendulum now—in the opinion of foreign businessmen in Japan—is swinging to the opposite extreme.

At present Japan appears more inclined to acquire foreign techniques by outright purchase of rights, patents, licences, etc., rather than to utilize them by means of a joint venture with the foreign holders. The initial publications and projects made by the newly established Productivity Centre in Japan point in this direction. Interestingly enough, the Centre is financed to a considerable extent by the United States Foreign Operations Administration (FOA). The main objectives of the Centre are the despatch of inspection missions abroad, lectures by experts, technical guidance on increased productivity and the collection of

relevant literature and other information. The fact that FOA reportedly allocated an amount of \$300,000 for the Productivity Centre could be interpreted as meaning that America has become aware of Japanese apprehensions of direct American private investment and realises that, if Japan is to become an equal member of the western orbit, her sensitivities must be taken into consideration and, therefore, technical development in Japan is to be promoted in accordance with her own desires and policies.

While Japan's reluctance to accept foreign private investment is increasing, her own representatives at various important international meetings have, during the last few months, repeatedly stated Japan's interest in investment in South-East Asian countries, mainly for purposes of development. It is quite possible that these Japanese advances will meet with the same reaction in South-East Asia that potential American investors are faced within Japan.

INDIA'S AMBITIOUS 2ND FIVE YEAR PLAN

By T. V. R'Chandran (Bombay)

INDIA'S Planning Commission has set ambitious targets to be accomplished by the country's Second Five-year Plan of development, which emphasises rapid industrialisation without relaxing efforts to step up agricultural production. Industry's share in the capital outlay proposed for the plan will be nearly 25 per cent, and economists have suggested that the development of the public sector and private sector of the industry should be allocated more than £825 millions and £337.5 millions, respectively.

Steel is the top item under industrial and mineral development receiving 30.4 per cent of the allocation and the target is to raise production from 1.3 million tons to 5 million tons. Simultaneously with this, industries based on steel will also be developed, by importing it in the initial stages. With the prospect of further expansion of the steel industry under the subsequent Plans, several plants for producing machine tools for fabricating equipment for producing steel are also proposed.

The development of heavy machinery industry gets an allotment of 17.2 per cent with plans to produce and fabricate plants for producer goods industry, electrical goods industry and consumer goods industry—and specifically heavy electrical equipment like generators, turbines, etc.

The plan does not favour any sizeable rise in the production of railway equipment. The production of locomotives, wagons and coaches are capable of being increased by working existing equipment to the full capacity on a multi-shift basis, it is explained by the planners.

"Household and hand industries," particularly the production of consumer goods get 14.3 per cent of the total allocation of industries. Newer industries like electrical goods, bicycles, sewing machines and glassware are expected to increase production by 60 per cent to 100 per cent. Production of bicycles will rise to one million per year, against the estimated production of 500,000 at the end of 1955. A target to produce 150,000 sewing machines by 1960 has also been set.

Development of power and transport is stated to be an essential pre-requisite for rapid industrialisation. Power capacity is being raised to six million K.w. by the end of the Second-Plan period. Three thousand miles of new lines are expected to be laid, under the railway extension plans. The Plan also provides for an extension of the national highways from about 12,500 to 17,500 miles and of State roads from about 20,000 to 35,000 miles.

New Petrol Plant

India continues to be short of petrol, most of its requirements being met by imports. It has been suggested that in addition to increasing oil prospecting as quickly as possible, a State plant to produce nearly 300,000 tons of synthetic petrol should be installed and put to commission before the end of the Plan period, and this gets a provision of 5.7 per cent of the total allocation for industries. Coal production will be raised to 60 million tons by 1960-61, iron ore to 13 million tons, and manganese to 3.5 million tons.

Total outlay in the Second Plan is being set at about £4,725 millions, according to the Indian Finance Minister, Mr. C. D. Deshmukh, and the objective kept in view while preparing the blue

print for the industrial development of the country is "to make India independent as quickly as possible, of foreign imports of producer goods, so that accumulation of capital would not be hampered by difficulties in securing the supply of essential producer goods from other countries."

To make up for the shortage of copper in the country and meet the requirements of electrification and power development considerable increase in the production of aluminium is planned and the proposed output of 40,000 tons represents a doubling of the target under the First Plan.

The fertiliser target assumes three more units like the giant Sindri unit and a three-fold increase in the output of heavy chemicals is also proposed. Cement, chemicals, fertilisers and factory consumer goods industries have been allotted 7.1 per cent each of the capital outlay proposed for industrial expansion, while the share of minerals and prospecting industries will be 5.4 per cent.

Targets for the manufacture of consumer goods are fixed on the basis that an increase in demand will result from the increase in national income and an increase in total population. Thus the production of mill-made cotton cloth is expected to be raised from 5,000 million to 5,500 million yards and that of handloom and powerloom cloth from 1,600 million to 3,200 million yards. This will provide for a domestic consumption of 18 yards per person per year, besides allowing for additional exports of some 500 million yards by the end of the Plan period.

Agricultural Output

The plan envisages an increase in the production of foodgrains from 66 million tons to 76 million tons, believing that this should ensure self sufficiency on an average standard of consumption. In the case of other goods, like milk, ghee, meat, fish, eggs and vegetables a 25 per cent rise in production is planned. Cotton output is being increased from 4.2 million bales to 5.8 million bales to help economic cloth production and it is assumed that the net imports of cotton will be greatly reduced by 1960-61.

The total yield of sugar cane will increase from 5 million tons of raw sugar to 7.5 million tons and in this way the production of sugar will rise from 1.4 million tons to 2.1 million tons making the country self sufficient. The targets for vegetable oils and footwear are based on similar considerations of self-sufficiency. The production of oilseeds is expected to increase from 5.6 million tons to 7 million tons, largely to meet domestic demand.

Principal export items like tea and tobacco will have their production maintained at present levels and increased as far as possible. The increase in the production of tobacco from 250,000 tons to 300,000 tons and of tea from 675 million pounds to 750 million pounds is postulated in the Plan.

In order to achieve the above targets the total irrigated area will have to be increased from 70 million acres to 100 million acres. Secondly, "Community Projects" will have to cover the entire country, and supported by organised rural credit schemes it will be necessary to ensure adequate return to the farmers and the speedy implementation of land reform measures.

In the sphere of agrarian economy, the proposals have laid stress on the urgency of land re-distribution. It is pointed out that "the fixation of ceilings and procedural arrangements for the distribution of land to cultivators must be decided at an early date in each State, in accordance with the general principles and standards settled on an all-India basis, and the re-distribution must be completed by 1958."

Working Force

In terms of employment the proposals have kept a target of finding new work for roughly 1.8 million persons who, on an average

will enter the working force every year.

The framers of these proposals claim that "if the target of production envisaged in the Plan is realised then the problem of unemployment should be brought under control by the end of the second Plan period." It is pointed out that "because of the rapid rate of industrialisation" employment in mining and factory enterprises will rise by about 45 per cent. The household and hand industries, communications and transport are expected to employ 20 to 25 per cent more than at present, while professions and services will record nearly 16 per cent rise in employment.

BRITISH CHEMICAL PLANT FOR THE EAST

By S. C. M. Salter (Technical Officer, British Chemical Plant Manufacturers' Assn.)

IT is perhaps by now merely tedious to speak of the "awakening East," with its accompanying demand for a better life for its millions of peoples. It may, however, not be so generally realised how intimately any progress towards a better life is tied up with the chemical industry, which in turn depends upon an adequate chemical plant industry.

The first necessities for raising the standard of living are increased food supplies and the fighting of disease. The land already available or potentially available for agriculture is strictly limited, whilst the number of mouths to be fed from that land are almost certain to increase very rapidly. Hence the yield from each unit of the land must be stepped up as a matter of urgency, and this can only be effected by a greatly increased use of fertilisers. Even where national finance would permit, it is very doubtful whether it will be possible to import on the scale demanded, as other parts of the world will have enough to do to meet their own needs. Consequently, fertiliser manufacturing plants must be established in the East.

The fighting of disease demands vastly increased consumption of antibiotics, drugs and pharmaceuticals of every kind. The industrial countries of the world, notably Britain, America and Germany, are here in a better condition to meet the demand for many products. But national economy, and in some cases national pride insists that certain of the more widely used remedies be manufactured locally. Here again, chemical plant is needed, smaller in size but generally more intricate and varied than in the case of fertilisers.

When one passes from basic needs to greater industrialisation, the role of chemicals and chemical plant is not less vital. Indeed, the production of the chemical, sulphuric acid, is regarded as a reliable barometer of the level of industrial activity of a nation. The products of the chemical plant industry enter fields beyond what is known in the narrow sense as the chemical industry, to all those processing industries where materials undergo a change of state or composition, as in the production of: Heavy chemicals, fertilisers and explosives; Coal derivatives, coal tar products, aromatic hydrocarbons and dye-stuffs; Chemicals from petroleum and other products of mineral oil origin; Industrial and potable alcohol and their related products; Fine chemicals and pharmaceuticals; Edible oils and fats; Soap, fatty acids, glycerine; Lacquers, paints and varnishes; Plastics; Basic materials for nylon, viscose, acetate silk and other artificial fibres; Synthetic rubber; and Synthetic and substitute fuels and derivatives.

The foregoing gives some conception of the importance of chemical plant to the development of the East, but applies with equal force whatever the source of the plant. What special contribution has Britain to make as a supplier?

Chemical plant requirements may be broken down into three main categories; firstly, individual specialised items of equipment, such as centrifuges, mills, and mixers; secondly, equipment fabricated in a variety of materials to meet individual requirements, such as storage tanks, distillation columns and reaction vessels; and thirdly, complete plant or even complete factories.

The British chemical plant industry has expanded considerably in both size and scope during the last few years, firstly to meet the urgent demands of its own chemical industry during World War II and secondly to meet the requirements for reorganisation and expansion

at home and subsequently overseas. It is now well able to supply specialised equipment of all types.

One of the present tendencies in the chemical industry—particularly that section which is closely allied to the petroleum industry—is to use increasingly large units. For example, a fractionating column constructed here recently for the Burmah-Shell Refineries at Bombay had a height of 110 feet and a diameter of 10 ft. 6 ins. Often the units are of such a size that fabrication on site of vessels and pipe lines is necessary, sometimes with the added complication that in view of the working conditions—e.g. high pressure—fabrication must be to the high standards demanded by Lloyds for Class 1 Welding or by the API/ASME Code with radiographic examination on site. Some idea of the scale now attainable is a steel sphere of 135 feet diameter to be erected by a British firm.

In this particular field, as in so many others, the inherent skill of the British craftsman has enabled British industry to meet the searching demands made upon it.

The key to the industrial development of many chemical processes is the availability, for plant construction, of materials which will resist the chemicals in use under the conditions of temperature and pressure involved; furthermore, the present tendency is for these working conditions to become increasingly severe. It is understandable therefore, that in all countries with large chemical industries there should be unremitting effort to develop new constructional materials. British industry has not lagged behind in this work or in learning how to fabricate the new materials.

Some of the most interesting recent developments have been the introduction of tantalum and zirconium as materials of construction for chemical plant and, in the non-metallic field, the increasing use of carbon, glass and plastics. It might be felt that glass, whilst attractive, would be somewhat a luxury on industrial plant; this has not proved to be the case. Complicated industrial equipment is now made from glass, and tubes in this material are available for column construction in diameters of up to 18 ins.

So far as plastics are concerned, new ideas have centred in the application of polyvinyl chloride and polyethylene, the latter itself being a British discovery. These materials can now be obtained in many forms for fabrication or for plant lining. Promising future developments include glass fibre reinforced plastics with greatly increased strength and irradiated plastics with interesting modified properties.

Although special reference has been made to fabrication in some of the newer materials, the well-tried metals and non-metallic materials must not be forgotten. Throughout these materials there have been developments to meet changing demands such as improved methods of welding stainless steel or the introduction of enamel linings resistant to greater degrees of alkalinity.

The third category of plant requirements, namely complete plant, is of special importance to the East. In the more technically advanced countries the purchaser frequently has the technical "know how" of the process which he wishes to operate and can specify with some degree of detail the equipment he requires. In many Eastern countries, however, there is no available reservoir of technical experience and the customer frequently requires that the supplier shall design, supply,

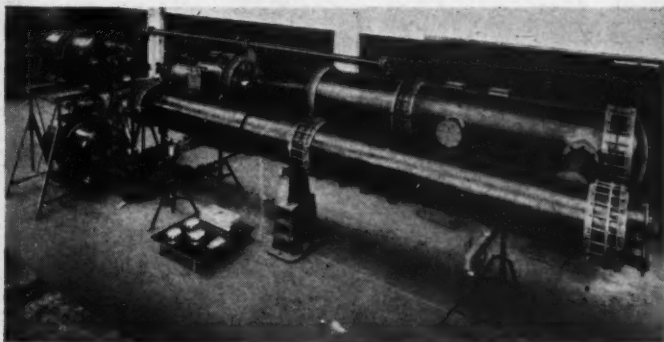
erect and start up the complete plant, the latter often including the training of local personnel.

Within recent years in Britain there has been a rapid expansion and technical development of the oil refining and petrochemical industries, together with an increasing tendency in the chemical industry as a whole for processing plant to be built on a much larger scale. Many of these projects have been of such a nature as to be beyond the scope of the engineering departments of even the larger and more technically competent firms. As a result, a number of British firms have obtained valuable experience in providing a complete contracting service and are now well able to offer a similar service to chemical industry in any part of the world. It is doubtful whether the competence and experience of British industry in this direction is always fully appreciated. Hence one or two sample instances of contracts fulfilled or in hand may be appropriate.

Within the last five or six years one British firm has fulfilled or obtained contracts in the Eastern hemisphere for a dozen complete sulphuric acid plants, six to India, one to Ceylon, two to New Zealand and three to Australia. This includes a £2 million plant for Australia which it is thought will be the largest single unit sulphuric acid plant in the Eastern hemisphere, with an output of 300 tons acid per day from local pyrites. The outstanding sulphate of ammonia plant at Sindri in India, with a capacity of 350,000 tons per annum, was engineered by a British firm. A British chemical firm is to set up a pharmaceutical industry for the Government of the Union of Burma. Complete plants under this scheme for production of yeast tablets and for an alcohol distillery with a daily capacity of some 2,500 gallons are being undertaken by another British firm. Yet another firm recently designed, engineered, erected and handed over as a "going" concern a complete factory in Kuala Lumpur for the production of soap, margarine and edible oil.

As they gain experience and trained technical personnel, there will undoubtedly be a growing tendency for the countries of the East to endeavour to supply more of their own needs of plant. At first sight this might appear to be a depressing prospect for the British plant manufacturer. But undoubtedly, as the industrialisation of a country increases, whilst the scope for the export of certain simple types of plant may decrease, the demand for more specialised plant and for technical advice will increase. A number of British firms have appreciated this trend and have set up branch factories or associated companies in overseas territories, including the East, to manufacture certain items of plant and to provide local service; special equipment and technical advice continuing to be supplied from home.

Both pictures illustrate parts of a complete plant for Hong Kong, for the production of Monosodium Glutamate, Hydrolysed Proteins, etc., assembled in the manufacturers' works (Kestner Evaporator & Engineering Co. Ltd.) before shipment. (right) Digestors made in Keebush, a phenolic plastic base material with heating surfaces of impervious graphite, to withstand hydrochloric acid. (below) A long tube vertical type evaporator with forced circulation and salting type separator, for the concentration and removal of salt from acidified liquors, assembled horizontally before shipment. This is also fabricated in Keebush with impervious graphite tubes in the condenser.



The continuing efforts devoted to export are reflected by the official statistics for export of chemical and allied plant and machinery. With the increased demand for rebuilding and new plant immediately after the War, increase in exports was not surprising. It is encouraging to note, however, that the increase has continued over the last few years; in 1951, the value of exports of chemical and allied machinery was just over £6 million, whereas in 1954 it was over £9.5 million. The range of countries to which plant is exported has also increased, for example, one leading plant manufacturer in 1938 exported to 21 countries, whereas in 1955 they will be exporting to 61 countries. Britain has long been a trading nation and the centre of a world wide Commonwealth, so that allied to technical competence she has the business experience to appreciate and fulfil the needs of the East.

It is hoped that this article has given some conception in very general terms of the capabilities of the British chemical plant industry. However, it is not much use to know that "Britain can make it" if one does not know where in Britain one must go to get it. Here, the British Chemical Plant Manufacturers' Association can be of assistance.

The Association, which now represents over 200 firms, published *British Chemical Plant*, a biennial directory of members which is the authoritative guide to the British chemical plant industry. This directory is available free of charge to chemical and allied manufacturers.

The Association can also help the chemical plant buyer in other ways. Its staff includes qualified chemical engineers with whom he can discuss his requirements; it has a comprehensive collection of catalogues which he may consult; it gives him the names of appropriate manufacturers or circulates his enquiry among them, and it gives him introductions to its members. If his enquiry is for plant outside the chemical engineering field it puts him in touch with the appropriate trade association, and if he is interested in United Kingdom facilities for training of chemical engineers, it will gladly advise him. The Association is not a selling or trading organisation and its advice is given free and without obligation.



THE SUI PIPELINE

By a Karachi Correspondent

THE 348 mile long, 16" diameter natural gas pipeline running from the Sui gas field to Karachi via Hyderabad, was completed on April 18, 1955, when a distinguished gathering attended a ceremony to mark the occasion of the last weld.

The contract for the laying of this pipeline was awarded by the Sui Gas Transmission Co., a company sponsored by the Burmah Oil Co., the World Bank, The Pakistan Development Corporation, the Commonwealth Development Finance Com-

sand dunes, swamps, irrigated land including three major river crossings and a dozen canal crossings of over 250 ft. in width with some 45 smaller ones. The overall laying rate was 2.08 miles per day but at times well over 3 miles was welded, primed, enamelled, wrapped, ditched and backfilled in one day.

The pipe is made of seamless steel, with thicknesses of .438", .312" and .250" according to location.

At river and canal crossings two methods were applied to take the pipe line across. Where distance was short, the line was laid on bottom and the pipe weighted down with concrete saddles. At wider crossings the line was carried on steel pile supports, at 50 ft. intervals, with walkway shades provided over the pipe.

The line traverses dry, partly desert terrain, for approximately 180 miles, of which the first 20 run from Sui, and the last 96 (almost wholly desert), into Karachi, the rest in patches in between, with wet irrigated stretches occupying the remainder and totalling approximately 170 miles. Rock was prevalent over about 20 per cent. of the length, which meant considerable blasting and rock drilling. It was located mostly in the desert section between Hyderabad and Karachi.

No less than 43,836 tons of pipe were required for this line, the first shipment of which arrived in August, 1954, and the last in March, 1955. The pipes were purchased in the UK.

Fibreglass Limited supplied over ten million square feet of pipe wrap, used for anti-corrosion protection of the 350 miles 16 in. steel pipeline. In addition to this D. Andersons & Sons Ltd., Stretford, Manchester, supplied three million square feet of "Thermoglas," which is a cold tar suturant outerwrap having a Fibreglass base.

A very important amount of construction plant and equipment was required to carry out the work in the time specified.

The "front end," showing length of pipe being welded in place and placed on skids. Following the side boom tractor is the truck carrying the welding machines



The Pipeline crosses the Lloyd Barrage

pany and the Pakistan Public to exploit the Sui gas field, to D. & C. and William Press Ltd., in conjunction with the Morrison-Knudsen Company of Pakistan, these two companies entering on a "joint venture" agreement and forming a company called Pakistan Constructors to carry out the work.

The contract stipulated that all work should be finished by May 6, 1955, and even though the start was delayed due to difficulties in the transport of the pipe from the UK and working was held up by sand storms and, in the last stages, by railway delays, the contract time was bettered by 19 days, this being the first time that a pipeline of this size has been built outside America in such a short period.

The line is designed for delivery of 74 million cubic feet per day under natural pressure with a developed capacity, when two booster stations are installed, of 110 million cubic feet per day. The estimated cost of the project with all ancillaries is £10 million and it has been calculated that the natural gas will bring in a saving of approximately Rs.25 million each year to begin with.

The construction plan was to work two spreads both starting at mile 135 from Sui. The first spread was started on November 3 but it was not until a fortnight later that the second spread was commenced. The rate of progress depended on the terrain being covered as this varied from rock to desert,





The last weld

19 days ahead of schedule in spite of 60 canal and river crossings, swamps, desert, hard rock, sand dunes, irrigated fields; crossing roads, railways and two barrages, this 16" diameter pipeline carries natural gas from Sui to Karachi.

The new £10,000,000 project, a vital artery in the progress and development of South Pakistan, and the longest natural gas pipeline in the Eastern Hemisphere, was constructed by D. & C. & William Press in Association with the Morrison-Knudsen Corporation.

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At Sui in Pakistan there is abundant natural gas. Away in Karachi there are industries which could use it for fuel. Engineers have contracted to connect the two — by 350 miles of steel pipeline carrying millions of cubic feet of gas per day. To protect this pipeline from corrosion ten million square feet of Fibreglass tissue pipewrap will be used in field application. The contract for the whole of this pipewrap has been secured by Fibreglass Limited, in open competition.

In fact Fibreglass will be used in more ways than one, for the outer wrap of 'Thermoglas', to be supplied by D. Anderson & Son Ltd., is also based on Fibreglass tissue. Yet this pipeline is only one of many in all parts of the world which rely on Fibreglass for protection against corrosion — and the protection of pipelines is only one among the many ways in which Fibreglass contributes to the efficiency of modern industry.

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Of the total amount, £715,000 worth came from the UK and the balance £490,000 in value, was supplied from the USA. Thus in the short period, June to November, 1954, Pakistan Constructors purchased in the UK and the USA over £1,200,000 f.o.b. worth of Construction plant and equipment, had it shipped to Karachi, received it there with a skeleton staff and moved it up country, by rail in part and over rough cross country tracks for the rest, to where required on the pipeline route.

Equally important was the arrangement in good time of the build up of the Site Construction Personnel and Labour Force, which at the peak consisted of 120 British and American Staff and skilled labour and 1,080 Pakistanis. In addition, at one stage (barrage work and rock blasting), some 2,000 sub-contractors' men were employed on the job.

It was necessary to import first quality mobile camps as adequate living facilities for personnel were not available and the climatic conditions were severe. Severe dust storms, torrential rains and heavy floods were encountered and impeded the rate of progress to a considerable extent; as also did one of the biggest single disadvantages, due to the physical nature of the country, namely the fine sand encountered throughout the entire length of the route. Tractors and other heavy equipment churned up the right of way area to a fine, powdery, almost impalpable dust, and this caused much trouble in maintaining the equipment and keeping it in running condition. It also caused serious discomfort to the personnel working on the job, and was a constant source of concern with respect to the health of the men. These various sources of slow down, caused a loss altogether of 18 days, and deferred the completion date correspondingly, which otherwise would have been March 31, 1955, as aimed at by Pakistan Constructors.

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INDIA'S RAILWAYS:

REHABILITATION OR DEVELOPMENT?

By a Calcutta Correspondent

AT the last Conference of the Inland Transport Committee of ECAFE (Bangkok, January, 1955), it was stressed that "taking the region as a whole, the over-all shortage of transport facilities continues and there appears to have been no significant augmentation of capacities in many countries of the region although most governments are either planning or in the early stages of implementing fairly large development of transportation services," and it added that in nearly all countries of this region "railways play the predominant role in the inland transport system."

In India the authors of the First Five-Year Plan were fully aware of the fact that the "problem of rehabilitation and replacement created by the post-1930 economic depression, neglected by the conditions of the war years, and accentuated by the special features of Partition has become the major concern of the railways." It was also stressed that the development of the country's economy and the increase of agricultural and industrial output would lead to changes of the pattern of the transport system, and to a higher level of railway traffic, accentuated by the steady growth of the population. India has a network of railway systems covering the major portion of the country and consisting of over 34,000 route miles, developed in the course of a century. It carries the bulk of the country's passenger and freight traffic, and has provided, for a long period, the most efficient and economic form of transport, especially for heavy goods over long distances. The Indian railway system is the largest nationalised undertaking in the country. About 98 per cent. of the railways are owned and worked by the Government, while the remaining 2 per cent., mostly narrow-gauge light railways, belong to private companies.

In 1950-51 the book value of gross fixed assets owned by the General and State Governments totalled Rs. 1,236 crores, out of which the Railways stood at Rs. 837 crores. At the beginning of the First Five-Year Plan the most serious problem facing the railways was the task of rehabilitation and provision of adequate equipment, particularly as a high proportion of the rolling stock was over age.

The Five Year Plan, 1951-56, allocated a sum of Rs. 4,000 million (£300 million) for the Railways, of which 52.2 per cent.

were for rolling stock and machinery, and another 16.2 per cent. for track. Although a provision of 7.1 per cent. of the total has been made for new lines, special projects, electrification of track, etc., and such works are in progress, extensive development works of the railways were to be carried out during the Second Five-Year Plan to keep pace with the progressively increasing traffic demands expected as a result of the economic development of the country.

It is noteworthy, that India possesses one of the few railway systems in the world with a net earning power adequate to meet all fixed charges and to provide substantial sums for development and reserves. The government railways are paying a dividend of 4 per cent. to general revenue under the terms of the Convention Resolution of 1949. The First Five-Year Plan estimates were that of the total expenditure of Rs. 400 crores, the contribution from the Central revenues would be Rs. 80 crores only, while the balance of Rs. 320 crores would be raised by the railways from their own resources.

Lal Bahadur Shastri, India's Railways Minister, speaking in the Lok Sabha on February 22, 1955, said that the entire allotted amount of Rs. 400 crores would be spent by the end of the Five-Year Plan, and added, that if deliveries of rolling stock ordered from abroad were maintained according to schedule railway expenditure might even go up to Rs. 4,180 million. The surplus for the current year was now estimated to be Rs. 65.7 million as against the budget estimate of Rs. 51.4 million, while the net revenue surplus for 1955-56 was now estimated at Rs. 71.4 million.

While the Minister felt that it was premature to refer to the rail transport aspect of the Second Five-Year Plan, he was able to state that "The programme has to be planned on a big scale not only to meet needs of our developmental economy but also to open up new areas which, so far, have remained without rail transport facilities," and added confidently that the railways would not lag behind other sectors of economy and would play their role as a spearhead among instruments of transportation. In the meantime the tentative target for investment in the railways during the Second Five-Year Plan has been fixed at Rs. 8,000 million (£600 million), double the amount allocated under

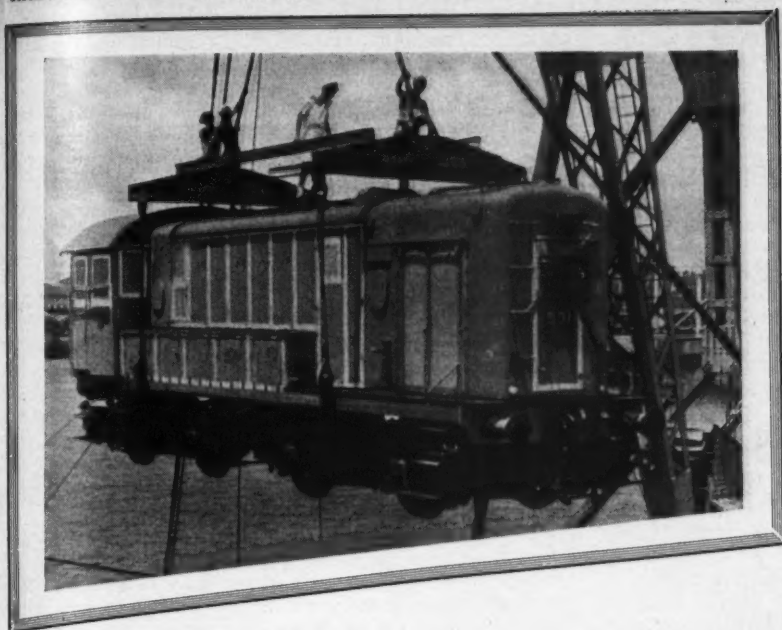
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Left: A 625 h.p. Diesel Electric Locomotive built for Shunting and Freight duties in conjunction with The General Electric Co., Ltd., of England for Ceylon Government Railways. Gauge 5 ft. 6 ins.



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Right: A (W.G.) Class Locomotive with Dynamometer Test Train about to leave Manimound Station, G.I.P. Railway

the First Five-Year Plan, and at the beginning of February a Conference of general managers of India's railways examined the tentative proposals of the new Plan.

If the First Five-Year Plan could be described in respect of Railway transport as a "rehabilitation plan," the Second Five-Year Plan should also in the field of the railway transport become, in fact, a "development plan." It was gratifying to learn that the Minister has instructed the Railway Administration to take preliminary steps so that actual construction work might start from the beginning of the new Five-Year Plan. India needs a dynamic policy of developing her railway system going beyond rehabilitation and modernisation of the existing lines. Even if the rolling stock already ordered would be put into operation before the end of the present Five-Year Plan, further replacements and additional rolling stock would be urgently required on a large scale to cope with the developing economy, and the construction of urgently needed new lines will further increase the demand on railway stock. It appears, therefore, that to keep pace with the general development of the country which is envisaged in the new Five-Year Plan a larger investment than the proposed Rs. 800 crores would become necessary, particularly if the Government is to regard the railways not only as a servant of the economy but as important means of developing the economy of the country.

ASIA'S PAPER INDUSTRY

MR. M. F. REID, director of Millspough Ltd., Sheffield, manufacturers of paper making machinery, told **EASTERN WORLD** after his return from a tour of Asia, that "there is really tremendous scope for development" there. He observed a very definite determination, particularly in India and in China, to develop paper industries.

In Peking Mr. Reid secured the order for a very substantial section of a paper machine that the Chinese were building for themselves. This would be delivered within about 8 months and would be the means of introducing into China some of Millspough's most modern suction devices.

On behalf of an Indian buyer Mr. Reid also bought some Chinese newsprint which is now in course of shipment. China, although in general a buyer of newsprint, is anticipating con-

siderable expansion in her paper industry and is anxious therefore to introduce her papers to as many markets as possible. Fundamentally she has considerable justification for anticipating such expansion. Suitable wood grows abundantly in the North, while in South and Central China there are enormous resources of indigenous raw materials in the form of rice straw, cotton waste, bamboo, etc.

The Paper Industry in the East, in Mr. Reid's opinion, was undergoing some change. In India, in particular, there were still a number of concerns working under individual control, but practically every new concern in the Paper Industry was in some way or other Government controlled such as the Nepa Mills. Pakistan already had three Government-sponsored paper mills, and was now planning a further newsprint mill. The Assam Government, according to report were considering to take some interest in an approved Paper Mill Scheme for that area. New paper mill schemes were, in fact, generally too costly for individual promoters and investors.

Mr. C. J. E. Keene, Chairman of The Indian Paper Makers' Association, described recently the outlook for India's paper industry as follows:—

"India can, with pride, regard herself as a pioneer country in developing the manufacture of high class paper from bamboo, and some of the finest pulp and paper-making plant in the world has been, and continues to be, installed in India to process this raw material . . . From time to time we hear reports of the world's diminishing timber forests due to over-exploitation by the wood-pulping industry, and bamboo, with its prolific growth, should place India in a strong position as a paper-making country. The Indian market for paper should expand considerably as educational programmes and industrialisation of the country develop . . ."

The scope for the development of this industry in Asian countries can be seen from the fact, that while the annual consumption of paper per capita in the USA is more than 380 pounds, and in Belgium and Holland approximately 100 pounds, the consumption in India and China was a few years ago less than two pounds per person. India's output of paper and paper boards increased from 137,000 tons in 1952, to 154,000 tons in 1954.

Perambur Coach Factory

The Coach Factory at Perambur, near Madras, will go into production in October this year. This will mark completion of one of the major projects undertaken by the Indian Railways Ministry under the Five-Year Plan. In the first year 20 coaches will be assembled; production will then be stepped up to reach a target of 350 coaches in 1960.

To begin with, the factory will build parts and components. It will become self-sufficient, except for certain items, in five years. When the factory goes into full production, foreign exchange to the extent of Rs. 50 million a year will be saved.

Electric Rail Coaches

For the first time electric passenger coaches for the railways are to be manufactured in India. An order has been placed with a Calcutta firm of rolling stock manufacturers for the supply of more than 100 such coaches to be used for the Calcutta

electric suburban service.

Ceylon Shipping Line

Ceylon now has her own Shipping Line, which is run with the help of Norwegian capital and technical assistance. Norwegian capital amounts to Rs. 1,039,200. The Government, which has decided to co-operate with the line because it is a definite step towards Ceylon having her own ships flying her flag, has contributed Rs. 1,150,000. The public holds the major share with Rs. 2,040,800. The authorised capital will be raised, eventually, to Rs. 8,230,000. For the moment six chartered ships will be used to carry cargo. To encourage the shipping line the Government has decided to give it the right of transporting all Government cargo for five years, including all the rice imports as well as exports of rubber. This right is subject to the conditions that Ceylon nationals will be trained to hold positions of responsibility on board ships as well as in the management of the line.

The Birmingham Engineering Centre

The recently-established Birmingham Exchange and Engineering Centre is Britain's only permanent engineering exhibition. It is situated in the middle of Birmingham, and was founded at the initiative of Mr. C. J. Grazebrook, Dudley, and other leading industrialists. The Centre performs a very useful function. Prominent engineering firms exhibit their latest products, whereby the exhibits are regularly interchanged. In addition, it has a well organised information department which answers enquiries from visitors and written enquiries, on sources of supply of the various engineering products in this country. Only recently the commercial counsellors of Ceylon and Japan, as well as engineers from various Asian countries, were visitors to the Centre.

The Centre regularly organises special exhibitions and evening lectures on various engineering problems, while industrial associations use its premises for meetings.

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CHINA'S QUALITY CONTROL OF EXPORTS AND IMPORTS

By a Peking Correspondent

PRE-LIBERATION China was often imposed upon in foreign trade. Relying on official slackness and corruption, and their customers' lack of knowledge, unscrupulous exporters frequently sold sub-standard goods to Chinese buyers.

At the same time, China's exports were often of uneven quality, which affected her reputation abroad and limited her trade.

Today all that has changed. Quality controls of import and exports has been taken out of private hands and is carried out wholly by the Commodity Inspection and Testing Bureau of the Ministry of Foreign Trade, under the procedure unified on a nationwide scale. This protects the interests of China's economic construction and helps foreign trade to grow on a basis of mutual benefit.

The legal requirements in this respect are as follows:

More than 270 categories of goods must undergo strict inspection and testing to see that they conform to national standards or the specifications of contracts. If they do not, they cannot enter or leave the country. Other commodities are also subjected to this process if contracts call for it. The Bureau examines vegetable and animal products, both incoming and outgoing, for virus and pests—in accordance with Chinese requirements and those of buying countries. It makes sure that exports and imports contain no impurities or adulterations.

The Bureau, which was set up in 1950, has a staff of some 2,500 specialists—including chemists, entomologists, pathologists, veterinarians, agronomists, and engineers—and can call on the help of scientific institutions. Its local bureaus are located in important commercial centres and points of entry—Shanghai, Tientsin, Canton, Dairen and Tsingtao along the coast; the Yangtze River ports of Wuhan and Chungking; and two inland centres, Huhehot in Inner Mongolia and Urumchi in Sinkiang province. Besides, there are over 60 sub-offices in other places. All have their own laboratories which undertake virus-examination, machine-testing, and physiochemical, optical and polarographic work.

With many exports, particularly agricultural products, quality control begins at a very early stage. For tea and fruit, for example, teams of specialists are sent to producing areas throughout China to supervise growing and processing. Prior to shipment, tea is tested for moisture, ash, dust, colour, taste and aroma. Fruit is classified by size, grade and species and examined for bruising, pests and proper packing. Tobacco leaf is inspected for moisture, ash and nicotine content. Additional random inspection is carried on at the dockside, and agricultural products, whether exported or imported, are subject to plant quarantine measures as required by both parties.

Frozen pork for export is controlled with great thoroughness. Living pigs must be certified as coming from areas free from infection, and carried in sterilized means of transport. On arrival, they are kept in separate pens according to place of origin. The body temperature of each animal is taken before it is sent to the abattoir. After slaughtering, there is a rigorous post-mortem examination. Then the meat is processed, graded chilled and refrigerated. If infection is found either before or after slaughtering, the pens or shambles in which it is discovered are sterilized. Rejected carcasses are incinerated or used for the extraction of industrial oils.

Raw silk exports are inspected in conformity with the International Silk Standard—which covers moisture, size deviation, evenness, cleanliness, tenacity and elasticity. In the Shanghai Bureau alone, over 100 technicians, with the necessary equipment, are engaged in this work.

Besides quality control, the Bureau surveys cargoes, upon application, for weight and quantity, damage and deterioration. Also, on application, it undertakes surveys of means of transport for cleanliness, ventilation, refrigeration, tightness and dunnage. If the specifications of the charter-party are not met, ship's officers are advised to take the necessary measures for improvement.

The Bureau has acquired a good international reputation for promptness, fairness and reliability. Its work is of great benefit to the growth of China's trade with all countries.

ULTRASONIC INSTRUMENTS USED IN ASIA

THE development of the chemical industry in Asia has not gone without the introduction of modern instruments to aid in its progress. One of the most useful is the Dawe ultrasonic thickness gauge, which can accurately measure the thickness of a material from one side only, without the need for drilling holes.

Pressure vessels, pipes, storage tanks and most other plant connected with the chemical industry is often subject to heavy wear. To prevent dangerous accidents due to failure of these parts, it has been necessary in the past to shut the plant down periodically and to measure the amount of wear and corrosion by dismantling it. At inaccessible points holes had often to be drilled and these had to be plugged again. The cost involved in loss of production and labour was considerable.

With the Dawe gauge, such measurements can now be taken without in any way interfering with the process going on

in the plant. This is done by injecting an ultrasonic signal into the wall. The signal is reflected from the far, inaccessible side and by simply turning a dial, the outgoing and returning signals can be brought into resonance. This gives a very accurate indication of the thickness of the wall.

The Dawe Type 1101 Ultrasonic Thickness Gauge pictured here, is used in several Indian chemical factories to measure the thickness of plates on plant without



stopping the process. By applying the probe to the outside of a vessel its wall thickness can be accurately determined in less than a minute.

Dawe Instruments Ltd. of London, have agents in most Asian countries and have supplied a considerable number of these and many other instruments, especially to India. The most recent order has come from the port authority of Singapore, who are using ultrasonic gauges to measure the corrosion on harbour tugs and land installations.

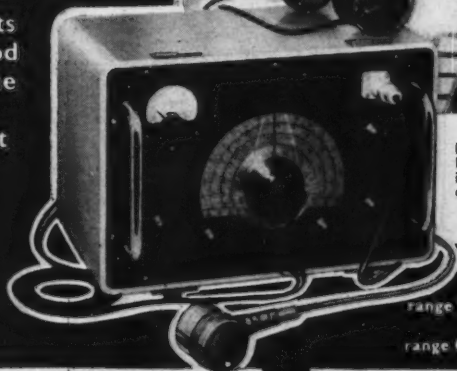
SAFETY *DEMANDS*

that the wall-thickness of all pressure-vessels, pipe-lines and storage-tanks should be checked regularly to ascertain the rate and extent of corrosion

DAWE *ULTRASONIC* THICKNESS GAUGES

carry out rapid wall-thickness measurements by a non-destructive method which requires access to one surface only and gives a direct-reading measurement to accuracy of $\pm 3\%$.

- Visual and audible indication
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- Curved crystals
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- Completely eliminates drilling



Routine checks on this Horton-spheroid containing fuel gas under pressure can be made without taking it out of operation.

TYPE 1101
range 0.06 in. — 12 in. of steel
TYPE 1101-I
range 0.02 in. — 4 in. of steel



Measuring the thickness of walls of a new oil storage tank before painting.
(Courtesy Vacuum Oil Company, England).



Gauging the dished-end of a stainless steel pressure-vessel.



The gauge is supported by a harness which leaves both hands free for taking measurements.

INDIA'S SIXTH MAJOR PORT

By M. Ganapati (Development Commission, Kandla Port)

INDIA'S 4,000 mile coastline had, before partition, only six major ports, namely, Calcutta, Vizag, Madras, Cochin, Bombay and Karachi. As far back as in 1946 the need was felt for an additional major port on the coast of Kathiawar and Kutch, as the hinterland depending on the port of Bombay

was too large. With the partition of the country in August, 1947, this need for an additional major port on the west coast of India became even more acute, as Karachi went to Pakistan, as more than a third of the hinterland hitherto served by Karachi, had now also to use the port of Bombay.

It was in these circumstances that the Government of India appointed the West Coast Major Port Development Committee to investigate the necessity of a deep-sea port on the stretch of coast covering Kathiawar and Kutch for the accommodation of ships of large size and tonnage in all seasons of the year. The Committee recommended the establishment of such a port without delay, and decided on Kandla as the most suitable site.

Kandla is situated on the south coast of Kutch at the eastern extremity of the Gulf of Kutch, where there is a wide creek running north-south, which has considerable depths of water for a distance of about eight miles from its junction with the Gulf.

The advantages in siting a major port at Kandla were decisive: a geographical position best suited to replace the port of Karachi in its service to the hinterland, a deep-water sheltered harbour in close proximity to dry land facilitating quick and economic development, economy of construction and maintenance on account of the low cost of reclamation and comparatively little dredging, and unlimited availability of land for port area.



Prime Minister Nehru laying the foundation stone of Kandla Port



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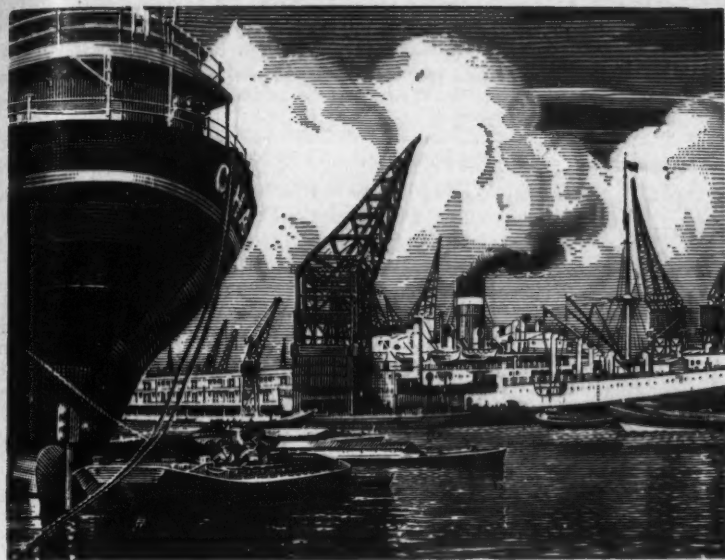
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Preliminary work started early in 1949. A small organisation started work on the survey and collection of data for the preparation of drawings and designs. Simultaneously, the Government also decided upon the construction of a metre-gauge link from Deesa to Kandla, a distance of about 172 miles. The link which was opened for traffic on October 2, 1952, established a connection to Kandla port with the metre-gauge system from Ahmedabad to Delhi.

World tenders for construction of the harbour were invited in November, 1950, and it was eventually decided to award the contract to Messrs. McKenzies Heinrich Butzer (India) Ltd., harbour contractors of Dortmund (West Germany).

In association with Indian contractors, they have undertaken to build the major harbour for a sum of about Rs. 62.5 million. The project as a whole, including the provision of the necessary electrically operated cranes, port equipment, roads, water-supply and drainage arrangements as well as staff colonies and offices, etc., is estimated to cost Rs. 129.5 million.

In designing the cargo jetty, care has been taken to ensure the provision of a large number of cranes. Actually, there will be four 3-ton cranes and one 6-ton crane per berth with an extra 10-ton crane at the southern end of the cargo jetty.

As there is not sufficient reclaimed land around the old port where the oil jetty is being located, it became necessary to

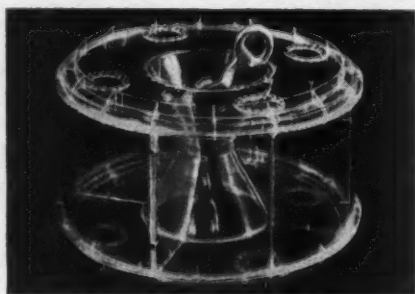
locate the oil installations of the various oil companies on dry land nearly five miles away from the site of the port, and a double oil pipeline, 12-in. and 16-in. diameter, has been laid between the oil jetty and the installations, with a booster station in between.

Construction of the harbour has been going on since early 1954. The bund and oil jetty have been completed. The cargo jetty will be completed in two stages, the first by early 1956 and the second by the end of 1956.

The completed harbour is intended to handle about 1.3 million tons of traffic of which nearly half a million tons will be oils. The principal items of cargo likely to be imported and exported through this major port will be oils, coal, foodgrains, cotton, piecegoods, building materials, machinery, general cargo, salt, groundnuts, wool, bonemeal, etc., for North Gujarat, Rajasthan, Ajmer, Delhi, East Punjab, West Uttar Pradesh, etc., a hinterland of 275,000 sq. miles. There are plans for expanding the harbour, but it may well take five years after the completion of the project before any expansion is justified. The need for such expansion has, however, been taken into account and the site selected offers sufficient scope for expansion in stages up to 20 or more berths.

Simultaneously with the location of the site for the port at Kandla, Sindhi refugees from West Pakistan selected this site for the construction of a township for resettling refugees. This township, known as Gandhidham, is five miles from the port site, and a nucleus of the township of about 4,000 houses has already been constructed and now provides all the accommodation necessary for the large number of staff and workmen who are engaged on the project. The township will eventually spread over an area of 5,000 acres.

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INDONESIAN AMBASSADOR VISITS BLUE FUNNEL LINE

H.E. The Indonesian Ambassador and Mrs. Raden Supomo together with members of the Embassy Staff, Dr. Zain, Minister Plenipotentiary, Mr. and Mrs. Taher Ibrahim, Commercial Counsellor, Mr. and Mrs. Imrad Idris, Press Attache, and Mr. and Mrs. F. F. Pesik, Commercial Secretary, were guests of the Blue Funnel Line on board the liner s.s. "Patroclus" at their loading berth in Birkenhead on June 3rd.

The following Directors of the Blue Funnel and their wives acted as hosts and hostesses: Sir John Nicholson and Lady Nicholson, Mr. and Mrs. C. D. Storrs, Mr. G. P. Holt, Mr. and Mrs. R. S. MacTier. Other guests included representatives of the civic, academic and commercial life of Liverpool.

In his speech, welcoming the Indonesian Ambassador and his party, Mr. George Holt said:

"... No doubt our Indonesian friends' interest in this city will have two principal objects: in one respect they will view in Liverpool one of our great seaports through which the trade between our two countries passes—alas, I wish there was more of it. The—to my mind—unfortunate system known as imperial preference forces us to pay extra for Indonesian products while making it difficult for us to protest, however otherwise justifiably, when preference is shown by Indonesia to the exports of other lands. All the same a fair volume of Indonesian traffic passes through the port; cotton goods and machinery from Lancashire, chemicals and fertilizers from up the Mersey, bicycles and all sorts of manufactures from Birmingham and the great industrial centres of the Midlands.

Incoming traffic from Indonesia includes copra and palm oil

for the great Unilever concern of which Merseyside is the principal and original centre in this country; also rubber and recently liquid latex for the numerous rubber consuming industries in the North-West, large quantities of tapioca flour bought for feeding stuffs for the numerous head of livestock which we now maintain in this country.

Nearly all this cargo is carried in Blue Funnel vessels and we are indeed proud to be the shipping link between Liverpool and Indonesia as we have been for more than fifty years. I am sorry to say that for a number of reasons, among which the chief are the still very slow working time arising from conditions in Indonesia and the present high preponderance of poor freight-paying cargo, our pride is about all that we are left with, and the pecuniary rewards of shipping services to Indonesia are far from adequate on the short term point of view, but that, of course, is not the view which we take.

... Indonesia is working hard to evolve a technique whereby a country of some 80,000,000 people, mostly peasants and many of them extremely primitive, can enjoy the benefits of modern nationhood. We, the nations of the West, with longer traditions of independence, may be tempted to set ourselves up as exemplars, but as I have already suggested there are some lights in which we may be also viewed as object lessons. We cannot, therefore, blame Indonesia if she takes measures which restrict the free play of economic forces, provided that these measures benefit the community as a whole. These measures sometimes are or appear to be detrimental to Western commercial interests but, if we are going to criticise them, we must concede that the well being of Indonesia is the paramount consideration. I honestly do not think the interests of Indonesia are served by general discouragement of Western commercial enterprise and of merchants and planters from the West, but the Western entrepreneurs must realise that they are now on a different footing and that they have a responsibility not only to their home countries but to the Indonesian nation.

Anyway the great and friendly interest they have shown us by visiting our city and port augurs well for the future however difficult it may seem."

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Statement by Afghanistan's Embassy in London

The Afghan Ministry of National Economy issued a statement which contains these items:—

The Government of Pakistan, notwithstanding their open Declarations that they have not taken any repressive measure regarding the Afghan transit and trade at the borders and inside Pakistan, prevented completely the flow of export and import and mail to and from Afghanistan since the 14th of May, 1955. Tankers carrying petrol to Afghanistan were emptied in Peshawar and the Afghan mail was stopped at the border and the wagons loaded with Afghan goods were discharged.

The Pakistan authorities denying these facts have said that the difficulties in Afghan trade may be caused by the removal of Afghan Consulates from Chaman and Peshawar. In reality the removal of these Consulates, which took place due to insistent demand of Pakistan Government and their initiative, cannot cause this stopping of trade and traffic, because the representatives of the Afghan National Bank in Peshawar, Chaman and Karachi can fulfil their duties regarding the Afghan export and import, but unfortunately they also were prevented by the Pakistan Authorities from discharging their normal duties.

The Afghan Ministry of National Economy made it clear that these measures taken by the Pakistan Government are contrary to all

International procedures and the International conventions like the Barcelona convention on transit and the Havana Charter.

The Afghan Embassy also quotes a report by the *Bakhtar News Agency* according to which the Merchandise purchased by Afghanistan from USSR will be received at Qizil Quala Port instead of Klift. This arrangement agreed between the Afghan Ministry of National Economy and the authorities of the USSR will shorten the route from the border to Kabul by 136 kilometres. The first shipment of Russian goods arrived on 5th June.

Korean Keyboard

A keyboard which will enable a person to type in the Korean language is being prepared by the Olympia Typewriter Company. It will be the company's 140th different keyboard. The present 139 include those for almost every language in the world, with reverse action carriages for some of the eastern languages.

East German Chemicals for Asia

The BUNA chemical works near Merseburg, one of the most important chemical works in Eastern Germany, are now exporting almost half of their total production consisting chiefly of synthetic rubber. A substantial proportion of these exports goes to China. Another big Eastern German plant, the Greiz-Doehlau state owned chemical works have increased their export to eastern countries, particularly to China and Pakistan.

Argillaceous earth from Greiz-Doehlau is needed for many industrial purposes, and the aluminium sulphate from Thuringia is used for the cleansing of drinking water in the East.

Sugar Factory for Indonesia

An Indonesian industrial mission is now staying in the German Democratic Republic as the guests of the "Deutscher Innen- und Aussenhandel Invest-Export" the eastern German trade organisation. According to an agreement signed in February, a complete sugar factory is being built in the GDR for Indonesia, and the Indonesian mission is visiting various factories where equipment and parts for this factory are now being made, and is inspecting German sugar manufacturing plants.

Italy's Trade with China Expands

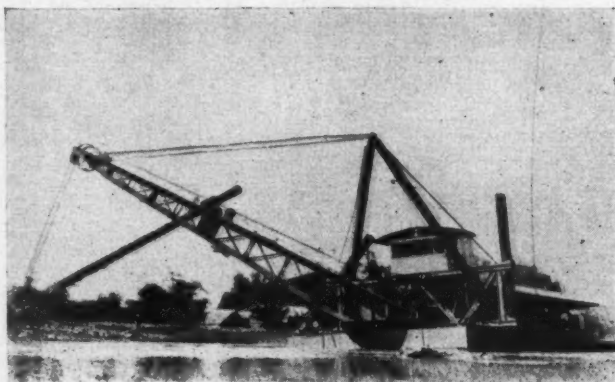
The Italian Ministry of Foreign Commerce recently raised Italy's Trade balance with China from 62 millions to 77 millions of Swiss francs. Until now, operations on that balance amounted to 43,057,307 Swiss francs, of which more than 22 million were in exports, and over 20 million in imports.

Turkish Ships from Japan

The 3,500-ton cargo ship "Denizli," built in Japan for the Turkish Maritime Bank, was launched on May 13th, and a second ship is on the stocks.

Holland Builds Six Vessels for Indonesia

At the shipyard of the "Koninklijke Maatschappij De Schelde" at Flushing, the keel has been laid for the first of a series of



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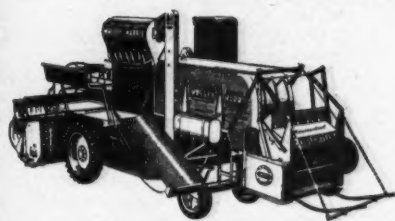
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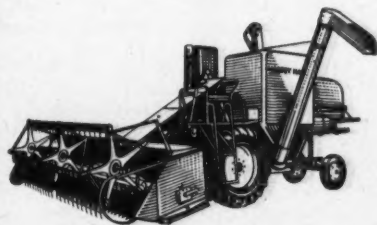
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six ships ordered by the Indonesian Government in the Netherlands through the intermediary of the "Nederlandse Scheepsbouw Export Centrale."

The first ship to be built by "De Schelde" at Flushing is a motorship for passengers and freight with a deadweight of approximately 4,000 tons, and able to accommodate 142 cabin-passengers and 1,500 deck-passengers.

The ship, which will be launched by the end of this year, will be able to reach a speed of 16 knots (on its trial-trip and fully loaded) and will be delivered by the end of 1956.

The other 5 ships also to be built in the Netherlands will be passenger and freight ships of approximately 1,700 tons each. The building costs of these vessels, interests included, are estimated at 52 million guilders.

Swedish-Indian Trade

The Swedish-Indian trade agreement of 1954, has in all essentials, been prolonged

until the end of 1956. The same liberal principles as hitherto will be applied to imports by both countries. Sweden's exports to India, including milk products, chemicals, pulp and paper, iron, machinery and instruments, totalled Kr. 67,000,000 in 1954, while imports amounted to Kr. 20,000,000 and mainly comprised jute, cotton, spices and other vegetable products and hides.

Sweden and Pakistan

Swedish technical assistance to Pakistan, according to an agreement signed last month, will take the shape of training of foremen for small industries, to start with in the joinery and ready made clothing industries. Machinery and other equipment will be furnished by Sweden, which country will also send teaching and administrative personnel and be responsible for their salaries.

From Chairman's Speeches

Central Provinces Manganese Ore Ltd.

Mr. H. R. Holmes (*Chairman and Managing Director*):

"As regards the Workers' Welfare Fund, you are probably aware that the Government of India attach very high importance to the welfare of all workpeople employed in industry. You will see from the Balance Sheet, we spent £17,117 during the year on this welfare work, and the £20,000 which we propose to appropriate to this fund is to replace this expenditure. We have always

taken the keenest interest in the welfare of our labour, and have in the past done much to improve the conditions under which they work and live. We hope that, with the co-operation of the Government and the Trade Union, labour relations will remain on the same satisfactory footing as they have been in past years."

Galaha Ceylon Tea Estates and Agency

Mr. G. H. Masefield (*Chairman*):

"Season 1954 may well prove to have been the best year Ceylon tea producers will ever

experience, as, apart from being a good year for crop, it also proved very easily the best year for price ever experienced, with, in our case, a rise of 1s. per pound over 1953 and 9½d. better than in any previous year."

The Malayan Chamber of Mines

Mr. A. G. Glenister (*Chairman of the Council*):

"The number of mines and dredge units operating at the end of 1954 was 719 (79 dredges) compared with 629 (76 dredges) at the end of 1953 and 706 (80 dredges) at the end of 1952. The output for 1954 was 60,690 tons of metal as against 56,254 tons in 1953, the possibility of the International Tin Agreement coming into force, with its problems of assessments and quotas, and the advantages, under the probable local rules, of being a unit actually in production at the time when the agreement commences, having undoubtedly stimulated production.

According to the data issued by the International Tin Study Group at the Hague, Malaya mined 36.45 per cent of the Free World's tin in 1954 as opposed to 33.15 per cent in 1953."

Mr. W. M. Warren has been elected chairman of the Malayan Chamber of Mines. **The British Pepper and Spice Co. Ltd.** Mr. D. Abel Smith (*Chairman*):

"We have had a busy year meeting a continued improvement in the demand at the lower price levels ruling for pepper, which is our principal commodity.

There have been considerable fluctuations in the prices of many of our articles during the year, with pepper prices finally settling at the lowest levels for many years, and a further decline in values can be expected.

We are, of course, obliged to carry stocks and buy forward supplies of pepper from the Far East at all times, including times when the market is weak, in order to be able to meet our customers' likely demands, and inevitably we have to suffer occasional losses on stocks, but this was considerably less last year than for the previous year and so is reflected in the increased profit.

There is keen competition in the trade and profit margins are smaller than formerly, but this has been offset by the increased demand."

P. & O.

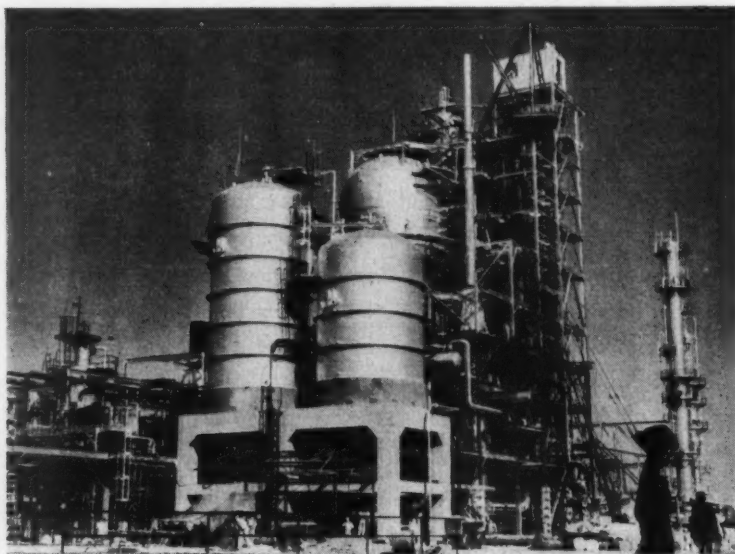
Sir William Crawford Currie (*Chairman*):

"During the past year it has been possible once again for the Company's vessels to trade with China, and substantial quantities of export cargo have been lifted from Shanghai, Tsingtao and Tientsin. Import cargo is unfortunately still subject to strict control, which has prevented the trade being in even balance."

"Shell" Transport and Trading Co. Ltd.

Sir Frederick Godber (*Chairman*):

"While atomic power plants may displace a certain amount of heavy fuel, low-cost electricity spells increased productivity, which in turn will create greater demands for petroleum products. All our studies on this subject have, in fact, led us to the conclusion that in the foreseeable future atomic power will be complementary to, rather than competitive with, energy derived from oil."

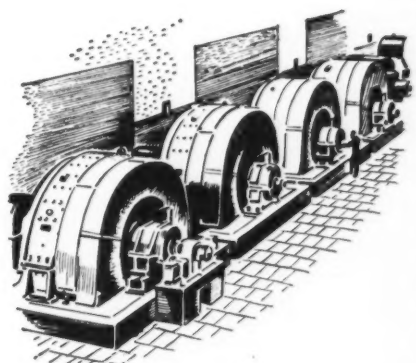
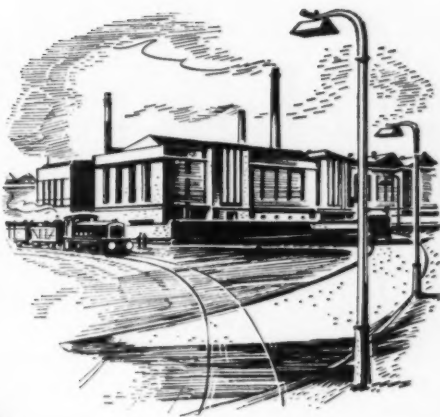
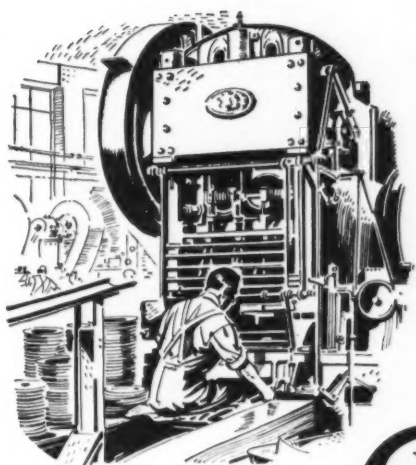


A close-up of the catalytic cracking unit at India's largest oil refinery, built by Burmah-Shell Refineries Ltd. on Trombay Island, 10 miles north-east of Bombay at the cost of over £23 million. The plant incorporates the most modern equipment, and processes two million

tons of crude oil a year. Its production of petrol, kerosene, diesel oils and furnace oils is the highest in India. In addition it also produces the greater part of the country's bitumen requirements

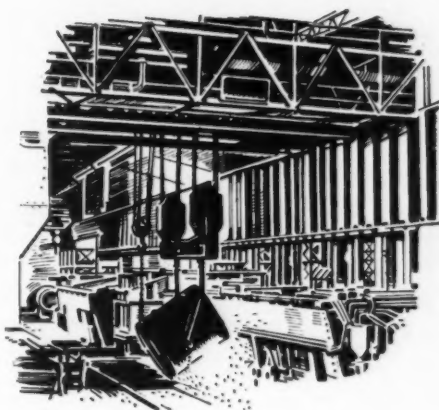
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The characteristic red of London's Underground trains

has been challenged recently by the silvery gleam of aluminium. For the London Transport Executive now has in service 90 aluminium coaches which have been built from 'Kynal' aluminium

Travelling light

alloys supplied by I.C.I.'s Metals Division. The use of tough, durable aluminium for the coach bodies means that a 20% saving

in weight is possible without any loss of strength, and it is to such telling advantages that Londoners owe the unexpected sight

of a "silver" train drawing into their familiar stations. Saving weight is something

of a speciality with I.C.I.'s Metals Division. Their interest in the subject covers not only

aluminium and its many alloys, but also the "new" metal, titanium. In co-operation with the Company's

General Chemicals Division, which is making the raw titanium, Metals Division

are now producing sheet, strip, rod and tube in this remarkable lightweight metal.

*Thus, and in a thousand kindred ways, I.C.I.'s research
and production are serving Industry.*



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